The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Venezuelan Commission has addressed to Mr. Olney a letter which ought to have been written and signed by him and addressed to Sir Julian Pauncefote on the 20th of July last, and have taken the place in this correspondence of his despatch of that date to Mr. Bayard. Had it done so, some hundreds of millions of money would have been saved, and the national reputation for peaceableness and rationality would have remained intact. It is a document evidently emanating from men of sound mind and disposing memory. It points out that an ex-parte body like the Commission, seeking to report on a controversy to which it is not a party, cannot get on very well without help from the disputants in the shape of evidence or "data and arguments." So it proposes that Mr. Olney should ask the grabbing British for "documentary proof, historical narrative, unpublished archives, and the like." They even ask for "an attorney or agent" to appear before them. Secretary Olney has replied that he has done so. Now we sincerely hope, in the interest of peace, that the British will comply. But in the interest of future peace, and in the interest of American self-respect, we must remind our readers that this admission of the Commission of its own ignorance and helplessness follows close on the President's "protest" in his annual message to Congress against "the enlargement of the area of British Guiana, in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela," which is a plain finding that the British were in the wrong, first in enlarging their boundaries, and secondly in refusing to submit to arbitration any claim the Venezuelans might choose to set up. It follows close, too, on his declaration that we should find out the true line of frontier for ourselves and force Great Britain to accept it, if need be by war. To go now, after causing enormous loss of property and filling two nations with anxiety, and confess to the British that we not only do not know, but have never known, whether they had wrongfully enlarged their borders or not, and that the commission we appointed to find the true line cannot get on without their help, is right, but is something which no honest and patriotic man ought to hear of without deep and vindictive indignation. It is virtually the confession of a crime against civilization, and can the perpetrators of it think over it without bitter self-reproach?

A great many Republican journals are at last showing signs of recovery from the lunacy of Jingoism by disapproving of the Davis resolution. They say we have had enough of Monroe for the present. Secretary Olney assumed sovereignty for us over the whole American continent—about half the habitable globe—and this, of course, carried with it all the claims of every description embodied in the Davis resolution. This resolution is simply notice that wilful annoyance to us as sovereigns will be considered "unfriendly," which sounds very like public notice from an individual that any open pulling of his nose will be taken in bad part. Having proclaimed ourselves rulers of the western hemisphere, and nobody having arisen in rebellion, we ought to be content. But both the performances of Mr. Olney and Mr. Cleveland and the Davis escapade show the extreme inconvenience of having to live by "doctrine," instead of by plain common sense.

An interesting article on the Venezuelan boundary, by Mr. H. R. Mill, from the point of view of a geographer, appears in *Nature* of January 2. He objects to all the lines that have been drawn or proposed as "an outrage on geography," inasmuch as they "cut natural features and mathematical lines at all angles, and in irregular curves which it would be impossible either to describe verbally or to lay out accurately on the ground without a survey as minute as for a railway." The difficulties in the way of any survey whatever in the disputed territory are enormous. Precisely there are to be found the richest and densest tropical forests of the world, and a recent explorer of the Barima River testifies to the severe labor required to force one's way into the woods at all. This will make it certain that our Venezuelan Commission will not go to the spot, axe in hand, to blaze the true lines through the forest, which we are thereafter to defend *ferro et igne*. Such patriotic rail-splitting must be done in youth to make a man eligible to the Presidency. Mr. Mill justly argues, from the defiance of all the principles of scientific political geography shown in the various suggested boundaries, that the case is eminently one for arbitration, and the drawing of a conventional line in such a way as to give a fixed and easily ascertainable frontier. He asserts, what we believe to be true, that the boundaries of every South American republic are disputed. If Uncle Sam is to take the job of surveyor-general for all that region, with the office of infallible arbitrator of metes and bounds thrown in, he had better prepare for roughing it for some time to come.

Mr. Balfour's speech at Manchester, last week, on England's foreign complications, was that of a civilized man as well as of a member of the Government. His assertion, in the latter capacity, that Great Britain has no cause for quarrel with any nation on the face of the earth, is timely and will be most reassuring; while his strong words about the "unnatural horror" of a war with the United States show that he does not keep his love of civilization as a thing for display merely in books and academic discourses. He put his finger upon our deepest shame and disgrace in the whole flurry, however, when he referred to the "newspaper articles," extracted from the American press, which "appeared to regard a war with England as a thing to be lightly indulged in, an exhilarating exercise, a gentle stimulus." A philosophic observer like Mr. Balfour cannot be blamed for regarding such barbarism as "distressing," but it is doubtful if any foreign observer can understand the phenomenon. It takes a native, long inured to the charming ways of the press in this country, to perceive that not a mother's son of the journalistic shriekers for war had the faintest idea that there would be any war. It was only the shouting for war that they found exhilarating; and their real "exercise," in case of actual war, would consist in running away as far and as fast as possible. Even in such pot-valor, moreover, they grossly misrepresent and outrage the cities and towns in which they vegetate. This is a thing that a foreigner cannot be expected to know, but evidence accumulates that the papers and politicians completely misunderstood the prevailing and respectable sentiment of the country, even of the West. Fortunately, war does not go on silliness any more than, as Bismarck said, on hatred; otherwise we should be constantly at war.

Senator Lodge appears to be giving his thoughts to the purchase by this country of the Danish West India Islands. There is not the slightest evidence that Denmark has made any overtures to us signifying a desire to part with them. But inasmuch as they are really worthless, and a source of expense to her, it may be that an offer on our part to pay, say, $7,500,000 for them, or even to take them for nothing, would be favorably received. It may be worth while to note what took place in reference to the island of St. Thomas in the winter of 1868-'69. Mr. Seward was then Secretary of State. He was possessed with the idea of territorial extension. In a note at the bottom of page 328, vol. iv., of Pierce's 'Life of Sumner,' we read that "he [Seward] once said at Sumner's table, in 1868, that in thirty years the City of Mexico would be the capital of the United States." (The time will have expired in two years from now.) Mr. Seward entered into a negotiation for

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the purchase of St. Thomas in 1867. The price to be paid was $7,500,000. "It is a worthless island," says Mr. Pierce, "remarkable for hurricanes, earthquakes, and droughts, destitute of productions, and inhabited by a miserable population." No wonder Denmark was eager to clutch that sum of money for a possession that she would not accept as a free gift if it belonged to anybody else. When the treaty of purchase came before the Senate committee on foreign relations, it was rejected unanimously. The committee consisted of Sumner, Fessenden, Cameron, Harlan, Morton, Patterson, and Casserly. Not one of them would consent to it, nor would anybody else in Washington except Seward. The House of Representatives, by a two-thirds vote, passed a resolution against any further purchases of territory.

President Grant, when he came into office, in March, 1869, threw the treaty out of the window at once, so far as the executive department was concerned. Soon after its rejection the island was shaken by an earthquake, which nearly demolished the town of St. Thomas and the ships which happened to be in the harbor. One of the effects of this earthquake was to transfer the centre of West Indian commerce to Barbados, where it has remained ever since. Those of our statesmen who want to acquire the island now, want it for war purposes solely. In this way it would possess many advantages. Being an outlying possession, it would enable us to get into war more easily than we can now. Being easily exposed to blockade and bombardment, it would require expensive fortification and the presence of a considerable fleet. Large naval appropriations would be called for expressly on account of St. Thomas. Much stress is laid on its advantages as a coaling station, but it should not be overlooked that we can get all the coal we want at St. Thomas in time of peace by paying a fair price for it, whereas if we were engaged in a war, St. Thomas would belong to us only on condition that we had a stronger naval force than the Power we were fighting with.

Senator Hale called up his Hawaiian cable bill on Thursday, for the purpose of making a speech upon it. The present scheme is to drop the Government building and control of the cable—for which, in the last Congress, Senators Hale and Lodge were for some days willing to die in their tracks—and to fall back on the good old plan of a subsidy of $250,000 a year to a private corporation. We do not know how fully Senator Hale explained the contract already made by this corporation with the Hawaiian Government. At the time, it caused no small outcry in Honolulu. The concessionaire, Mr. Spalding, ex-United States Consul, and his counsel, ex-Minister Thurston (how naturally these exes go in for subsidies!), were charged with putting through a secret and monopolistic contract. The company was to have exclusive rights for twenty years, and to be given, as one Government organ complained, "the whip hand in making terms with Australia, Japan, or any other country of the Pacific." However, as the $40,000 a year subsidy from Hawaii was contingent upon getting six times as much from the United States, it was thought safe to put the act through even with the onerous conditions. In other words, Hawaii gave the company a sort of crowbar with which to break into the United States Treasury. But Senator Hale was, of course, equal to turning this corner with grace and skill. Objection to a subsidy to a monopoly? He hoped Senators would understand that if this country abandoned the project, the British would at once rush in and fairly cover the Pacific with their devilish military cables. To this there could be no answer, and the bill "went to the calendar." It ought to go to the Greek Kalends.

It appears, from a circular issued last week by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, that the suggestion for a public subscription in place of the syndicate subscription was communicated by him to the President in a letter dated January 4—that is, two days before Secretary Carlisle's circular was issued. In this letter Mr. Morgan held the opinion that less disturbance of the money market would result from a loan made through and by the syndicate, but, in view of the legislation proposed and the dicussions that had already taken place in Congress, if the President should think best to call for a public loan, he would cheerfully cooperate to that end. He urged his fellow-members to join in it, and dissolved the syndicate in order that they might be free to do so, and he has pledged his firm to join others in taking whatever portion of the loan may be left over after the subscriptions close. It is fair to presume that the Secretary of the Treasury would not have issued the call so promptly (although he might have done so eventually) without the assurances conveyed in Mr. Morgan's letter, since it would have been a serious responsibility to give a bird in the hand for one in the bush—to reject the offer of responsible parties for all the gold he wanted, on the chance of getting a smaller but indefinite amount from some other unknown source. Indeed, the coöperation of the syndicate was the essential prerequisite of the success of the loan, and it is that coöperation which makes it a success to-day.

The small premium on gold existing at the present time in conjunction with an open Treasury and daily redemption of the Government's legal-tender notes in gold, is a phenomenon which needs some explanation. It is due to the prevailing superstition that it is not patriotic, or at all events is not good manners, to draw gold from the Treasury with which to pay for the forthcoming issue of the United States bonds. For this reason people will go to bullion dealers and offer them one-half per cent. or some other premium for gold, and then the bullion dealers will buy sterling exchange and import the yellow metal. Those who sell sterling have to export gold to make their balances good on the other side, and this they must obtain from the Treasury. This explains the phenomenon witnessed last week of gold imports and exports passing each way on the ocean—all in obedience to the prevailing superstition. The premium on gold in the Street is simply the cost of cartage and shipping. It would be much easier and more rational, and likewise devoid of expense, if the buyers of bonds would wait till the time comes to pay for them, and then go to the Treasury with any legal-tender money they have and pass it in. If the Treasury officers say they must have "coin" for the bonds, it is only necessary for the bond-buyer to demand coin for his greenbacks, and when it is given to him pass it back in payment for his bonds.

The idea prevailing in Congress, and in the country to some extent, that the shrinkage of the gold reserve is due to a shrinkage of revenue or an excess of disbursements over receipts, is a mistake. It overlooks two facts. One is, that the Treasury actually has an enormous surplus on hand, more than $100,000,000. In the matter we are now considering, the source of this surplus is quite immaterial, whether from bond sales, or internal taxes, or customs duties, or what not. The money is there, and it is applicable under existing law to all ordinary governmental uses. The other forgotten fact is, that between July, 1890, and October, 1893, the Government forced into circulation $156,000,000 of Treasury notes, besides 36,000,000 silver dollars, or a total of nearly $200,000,000 of currency, for the greater part of which there was no business demand or requirement. That there was no such demand is evidenced by the fact that we exported $141,000,000 of gold during the time that we were putting out this new lot of fiat money. The panic of 1893 had its origin here, and not in any deficiency of revenue. Senator Sherman naturally prefers to look in some other quarter of the heavens for the cause of that financial crash. The fatal act of 1890 bears his name. That he is not wholly unmindful of the truth, however, is made plain by the terms of his recent resolution and speech in the Senate, in which he proposes to imprison all the greenbacks and Treasury notes that are sent in for redemption, and not to pay them out except in exchange for gold. This would not be a bad idea in itself, because it would amount to a retirement of

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greenbacks *pro tanto*. It would curtail the banking functions of the Government to some extent. It moves the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* to the sarcastic remark that Senator Sherman's affection for the greenbacks, as the best paper currency ever invented, moves him to take them out of harm's way by putting them beyond the reach of a rude, unfeeling world.

The venerable ex-Speaker Grow made last week a vigorous assertion of the prerogatives of the House against the dangerous encroachments of the Executive. It was an awful thing to have a financial bill laid before members known as "the Secretary of the Treasury's bill." Liberty was on its last legs when a letter from the President could be read in the House just before a vote was to be had on a tariff bill. The ex-Speaker was eloquent on the duty of the House to itself in the matter of making the President keep his place. But the question arises, Where was Mr. Grow on December 18 last? Had the House no prerogatives then? Was he sitting by, frightened and dumb like the rest, when a President practically usurped the power of Congress to declare war, and not a voice was raised to assert the privileges and dignity of the House? The ex-Speaker had a glorious chance then to assert the constitutional rights of the House; and his argument would not then have seemed to assert, as it does now, that it is usurpation to ask Congress to pay the country's debts or reform taxation, but strict constitutional patriotism and propriety to urge it blindfold into war.

Bill Chandler is quite as zealous a supporter of Speaker Reed for the Presidency as is Matt Quay, and the New Hampshire Senator has taken to writing articles in favor of the Speaker's nomination. The most novel feature of Chandler's arguments is that he presents the former "czar" in the light of a compromise candidate, who is neither out-and-out for sound money nor bitterly opposed to soft money. It may be that Eastern Republicans, who believe in the gold standard, and silver-State Republicans, who believe in a 50-cent dollar, will rally with enthusiasm to the support of a man who stands on such a platform; but it is hard to recognize in this "wobbling" candidate for a Presidential nomination the man whose friends used to boast of his courage and positiveness.

It is not wonderful that the victory which Representative Bartlett won last week, single-handed, over the whole school of pension sharks gathered in the House of Representatives and its lobby, has attracted wide attention. The public Treasury can always supply itself with watch-dogs of the Holman variety in Congress; any member can win cheap fame by becoming a chronic objector, and blocking all legislation which does not seek an outlet for expenditures in his own district. But it requires a higher order of courage to defy malicious misrepresentation and vulgar personal abuse from one's own colleagues, by taking a stand alone against an army of time-servers bent on holding the soldier vote at any cost. There was not a point made by Mr. Bartlett during the debate to which every honest citizen will not assent. The blatherskites, on his own side of the House as well as on the other, had to appeal to the lowest instincts of the mob behind them in order to find material for their speeches in response. The deserving veterans have a better champion in a Representative who tries to protect their reputations against the taint of fraud, than in one who is willing to rob the Treasury for the sake of shielding himself from a false charge of disloyalty.

The choice of Chicago as the place, and the 7th of July as the time, for the meeting of the Democratic national convention is significant and encouraging because the free-coinage element in the committee desired St. Louis, as a headquarters of silver sentiment, and a date a month earlier, because they thought they would be stronger, the shorter the preliminary discussion. Precedent dictates the holding of its convention by the party in control of the Administration before that of the Opposition, but the Democrats are now in a minority in each branch of Congress six months before Presidential nominations are to be made, for the first time since 1872, and they feel little like taking the initiative. A more striking sign of party demoralization is the almost complete absence of any serious discussion of candidates, or of any organized movement for the nomination of any man. It is quite without precedent that the party which elected the President at the last election should enter a Presidential year without any general expression of opinion in favor of any candidate for the next term, and, indeed, without evidence that anybody is very anxious to secure the nomination. This extraordinary situation only reflects a general feeling ten months before the election that the Republican candidate is sure of success. Yet so sudden and great have been the revolutions in public sentiment of late years in the United States that it is foolish to regard the result of the voting next November as already settled.

Philadelphia Republicans always elect their delegates to the national convention very early, and the custom was maintained this year by conventions in the five Congressional districts last week. A touch of humor was lent to the occasion by the adoption, in a convention controlled by the Senator's friends, of a resolution declaring that their delegates "should favorably consider the name of Pennsylvania's representative Republican for the Presidency, Hon. Matthew Stanley Quay," and instructing them to vote for him if his name shall be presented to the convention. Of more significance was the resolution adopted in another convention which was run by one of Quay's lieutenants, "recognizing the splendid abilities, the masterful leadership, the wise and safe statesmanship, and the distinguished public record of the Hon. Thomas B. Reed of Maine," declaring him "the best exponent of our party in council and in action," and instructing the delegates to "earnestly labor and consistently vote for the nomination of that matchless man of the people as the standard-bearer of our patriotic party." Philadelphia is the first city in the country to elect and instruct delegates, and the Speaker of the House is thus entered in the race ahead of all rivals. This fact illustrates one advantage of being the favorite of a party boss—but there are also disadvantages in enjoying such favor.

There has been a good deal of talk about the exact nature of the control of Great Britain over the foreign relations of the Transvaal, and the general impression has been that the Boers could hold no intercourse with foreign Powers except through the British Government. But this contention does not seem to be sustained by the text of the treaty of 1884. This treaty was a sort of revision of the Sand River Convention of 1852, which first guaranteed the independence of the Boers. Here is the article which is supposed to cut them off from foreign intercourse except through the British Foreign Office:

> "The South African Republic will conclude no treaty or engagement with any state or nation other than the Orange Free State, nor with any native tribe to the eastward or westward of the republic, until the same has been approved by her Majesty the Queen. Such approval shall be considered to have been granted if her Majesty's Government shall not, within six months after receiving a copy of such treaty (which shall be delivered to them immediately upon its completion), have notified that the conclusion of such treaty is in conflict with the interests of Great Britain, or of any of her Majesty's possessions in South Africa."

Under this, treaties have been concluded with both Portugal and Holland, with British approval. But this plainly does not prohibit anything except the conclusion of treaties with foreign powers without British sanction. Treaties must be negotiated, and negotiation means a great deal of intercourse, which must be in the main friendly, and may include various sorts of friendly expressions. A government which might negotiate a treaty with Germany must surely be allowed to receive congratulations from Germany on any piece of good fortune, including the repulse of a party of filibusters. In fact, it does not appear that Oom Paul is cut off from any sort of correspondence with any power which is not openly unfriendly to Great Britain.

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THE ROOT OF THE TROUBLE.

THE finances and currency of a great and very rich nation are and have been for ten years in such disorder that the Government is borrowing money, with immense hubbub, every three or four months to keep its own paper at par in a time of profound peace. In the midst of this hubbub all branches of the Government have agreed with wild acclamation, although possessing neither army nor navy, to challenge the greatest maritime power in the world to an armed conflict concerning a boundary dispute on foreign soil between this maritime power and a small and semi-barbarous community consisting mainly of Indians and negroes. When this act of folly has shaken the whole edifice of national and private credit, nearly all the public men of the nation in question have thrown the blame on the persons most interested in national prosperity, the bankers and brokers, and denounced them as public enemies, while some have rejoiced in the prospect of having the leading commercial cities laid in ashes by a foreign fleet. Others have gone still further, and accused foreigners of selling their own property cheap for the purpose of annoying their enemies. In the meantime neither branch of the National Legislature shows the smallest capacity to pass bills concerning domestic affairs, while one of them is principally occupied in drafting defiances to peaceful neighbors, and in proposing schemes of taxation and finance which the rest of the civilized world looks on as insane.

Along with this state of things at the capital, all the large cities and many of the large States are given over to the government of bosses, who control all legislation by means of money derived from blackmail levied on corporations as the price of exemption from confiscatory attacks. In this way the attempts made by persons of acknowledged intelligence and integrity to improve social conditions are invariably frustrated, and the comments of these persons on public affairs treated with hilarity. In fact, in whatever direction we look, we see the classes which civilized men have hitherto agreed to consider bad because venal, or dangerous because ignorant and inexperienced, in full control of affairs. If the public men are wise and skilled and pure, then the experience of the human race touching statesmanship and morals is not worth a farthing rushlight.

The name of this country is the United States of America. What is the cause of all these troubles? It was given last week in terse language by Prof. Wheeler of Yale College in a lecture on the Monroe Doctrine. Said he:

"We say that the message was called out by the danger to our institutions. Why don't we take them in out of the wet and not let them remain out over night? Our danger does not lie in Venezuela, nor in the land south of the frost line. It lies not in contact with England, whose institutions are as free as our own. The liberties of our fathers are in peril. The danger lies in the degeneracy of our public men, and in the failure of the attempt to get a decent municipal government. Republican government has often been a curse. The ballot has no virtue, and under certain circumstances it is a source of great corruption."

Now, if this be not true, what is the matter with us? Why are we in this wretched condition? If these men at Washington are competent, why do they not get us out of our present slough? Why did they ever let us get into it? Why do we have to borrow money to keep our paper at par? Why do we all wear the "shackles of the money power"? Why has not something been done long ago to break "the power of Wall Street"? Why are foreigners able to annoy us by selling their own property at fifty cents on the dollar? Why have we so many tons of silver stored at Washington? Why is it not made to circulate freely among an impoverished people? Why is Spanish America, over which we claim dominion, left in such a condition of ignorance and barbarism? Why are the bulk of our intelligent classes, who do the principal work of our civilization, so discontented and anxious? If they are mistaken, why are they such dreadful fools? Prof. Wheeler answers all these questions, and many more which we do not ask. The cause of all our troubles is the rapid deterioration of our public men. When a ship runs on a mudbank in broad daylight, with the charts unrolled and the instruments of navigation in good order, the cause is not the ship herself, nor the passengers, nor the mudbank, nor the daylight, but the captain or the pilot.

An anti-war sermon delivered in Philadelphia during "the scare" by the Rev. Joseph May, Dr. Furness's successor, contains one tremendous passage, which we quote in full:

"I have lived through two generations. I recall vividly the shameless bodies which sat in our congressional halls and laid the spirit of the North, the principles of our government, the safety of the Union, prostrate before the slaveholding oligarchy. But I know of no Congress that ever sat before in which there was not at least one righteous man to raise his voice against national folly and national danger; against the usurpation of the executive and in warning of the perils to which clumsy diplomacy, acute technicality, and rash and partisan speech were exposing our people. Alas, that we have allowed such a class to take possession of our affairs, that when the most dangerous word of this century was recklessly spoken, not one man had the virility, the patriotism, the mere practical wisdom to rise in his place in stern rebuke, in solemn warning! We have little hope from our politicians of anything good, or wise, or patriotic."

This refers to the wild vote of approval given to the President's sudden declaration of war by both houses of Congress, for it was, we think, the first time since man invented the bow and arrow that a nation declared for war without deliberation. There is no African tribe so low in civilization as not to deliberate or hold some kind of council before putting the community in peril through a challenge to a powerful enemy. We care not what the cause may be, it is human to deliberate before fighting, bestial to bite without caring what follows. It was no Mugwump who said, two thousand years ago, "What king, as he goeth to encounter another king in war, will not sit down first and take counsel whether he is able with ten thousand to meet him that cometh against him with twenty thousand? Or else, while the other is yet a great way off, he sendeth an ambassage, and asketh conditions of peace."

Therefore, we think it may fairly be said to the young men of the country that they will study in vain sociology, and economics, and statecraft, and vainly get their patriotism on the boil for war, unless they can put a better order of men, more rational, more instructed, and more upright, in charge of our public affairs. We cannot go on very long out of all intellectual relations with the rest of Christendom, calling wise what they call foolish, wrong what they call right, and treating as malefactors the men whom they treat as benefactors. There has been no special creation either of men or things for the benefit of America. Human reason and human experience work here in just the same way as elsewhere. Two straight lines cannot enclose a space in any part of this continent. It cannot be true here, any more than elsewhere, that people whom no wise man would think of consulting about any private affair are fit to regulate the affairs of a nation of 70,000,000 in peace or war. Behind the currency question, and the tariff question, and the Monroe question, and every other question which agitates this community to-day, lies the question of more honest and competent national and State legislators.

THE NEW "AMERICAN" DOCTRINE.

SENATOR SEWELL of New Jersey introduced resolutions on Thursday affirming that the Monroe Doctrine was originally propounded as a warning to the allied Powers of Europe not to attempt to subdue the revolting colonies of Spain; that the true ground on which it is based is our interests, and our interests only; that neither by the Monroe Doctrine nor any official declaration have we ever come under any pledge to any Power or estate on this continent that binds us to act merely for their protection against invasion or encroachment by any other Power; and that when a case arises in which a European Power proposes to acquire territory by invasion or conquest, it is then for us to determine whether our safety and our integrity demand that we shall resist such action by armed force if necessary.

These affirmations are not left by Mr. Sewell to stand as mere abstractions. He goes on to connect them with the immediate crisis by affirming:

"That the Executive has pressed the Monroe Doctrine beyond what was contemplated at the time of its announcement, and that the resultant sequence of the positions thus taken seems to be a committal of this Government to a protectorate over Mexico and the Central and South American States. That this would be most unwise and dangerous, and would vio-

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late the sound and well-established policy that we should avoid all entangling alliances with foreign Powers, whether they be European or American. That this action was premature, looking to the history of the controversy, and inopportune in view of the business and financial condition of the country.

"That neither Congress nor the country can be, nor has been, committed by the action or position of the Executive Department in reference to the Venezuelan boundary controversy, as to the course to be pursued when the time shall have arrived for a final determination. It will then be our province and our duty to adopt such a line of policy and to take such action as may be then demanded by our sense of duty to the country, and by a due regard for its honor and dignity, the welfare and safety of our people, and the integrity of our institutions."

If Senator Sewell's resolutions had been introduced a year ago, when there was no particular excitement on hand, they would probably have been adopted without debate, or, if objected to at all, would have been opposed on the ground of being a needless affirmation of the undisputed policy of the Government. In the absence of any particular stirring of the war spirit, founded upon misinformation, everybody who paid any attention to the matter (except, perhaps, the Manoa Company) would have said that Mr. Sewell was right in his interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, but that its reaffirmation was perhaps needless and a waste of time. His resolutions derive their chief significance from the change of public opinion that has taken place since the President's message was sent in. They would have found no place in the Senate's proceedings unless there had been abundant popular support for them. How many recruits Mr. Sewell may find among his Republican colleagues it is impossible to predict. Probably most of them would come to his support if they had not made such a disgraceful exhibition when they allowed themselves to be stampeded by the President. They will naturally seek refuge in the other resolution reported on Monday by the committee on foreign relations, which reads as follows:

"Resolved, That the United States of America reaffirms and confirms the doctrine and principles promulgated by President Monroe in his message of December 2, 1823, and declares that it will assert and maintain that doctrine and those principles, and will regard any infringement thereof, and particularly any attempt by any European Power to take or acquire any new territory on the American continent, or any island adjacent thereto, or any right of sovereignty or dominion in the same, in any case or instance as to which the United States shall deem such attempt to be dangerous to its peace or safety, by or through force, purchase, cession, occupation, pledge, colonization, protectorate, or by control of the easement in canal or any other means of transit across the American isthmus, whether under unfounded pretension of right, in cases of alleged boundary disputes, or under any other unfounded pretensions, as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States, and as an interposition which it would be impossible, in any form, for the United States to regard with indifference."

As there is no boundary in certain regions between Great Britain and Venezuela, and as the boundary is disputed in other places, this is virtually an invitation to Venezuela to claim any line she pleases, even the whole of British Guiana, if the Dictator for the time being should see fit to do so, and a prohibition to Great Britain to dispute any such claim on pain of war with the United States. It overrules the position taken in this matter by successive Secretaries of State during twenty years of controversy, and also that taken and solemnly promulgated by the President within the last two months in a message which, as it stood, was considered sufficiently warlike. It overrules, also, Monroe's admission of the legitimacy of the European colonies already existing on this continent at the time he compounded his doctrine—for a notice to a colony that it must not dispute any territorial claim which any Spanish-American neighbor may make, is virtually notice to quit. It makes that colony's existence illegitimate for all practical purposes.

This notice, too, which, if addressed to us, would be considered an insult of the most flagrant character, that would range even the most peaceable of us on the side of war in spite of want of preparation, is addressed to one of the strongest Powers in the world, certainly also one of the proudest and most warlike, and most famed for tenacity and resources, which is already in a state of irritation over this very question; and it is addressed by a nation which is borrowing money quarterly to keep its demand notes at par, has no army at all and only a very small navy; and it is addressed in defiance of the protests of the great body of intelligent, sober-minded, and religious persons of all callings, who may be considered the mind and conscience of "this our nation." We can recall no case in history in which any government, big or little, has submitted to such terms except after complete defeat in a bloody conflict. They might have been presented to Thiers by Bismarck, but only after Sedan and the capture of Paris.

We do not need to comment on them at any length, or indeed to comment on them at all, as far as the readers of the *Nation* are concerned. Upon Jingoes any comment or argument would be wasted. We have for the past two months read the remarks of a large number of their papers on this Venezuelan dispute and the President's message, and have never found in one of them any ratiocinative defence either of the Monroe Doctrine or of the Cleveland Doctrine. All objections to it made by sober-minded people are generally met, by a Jingo, with loud yells, and profuse vituperation, and invitations to quit the country if you do not like it. "Do you not see," you say to him, "that such and such consequences will follow your attempt to put your Doctrine in force as you understand it?" "I don't care a rap," he replies, "about consequences; that's the way I feel. Huroo, huroo!" and then he jumps about like a maniac, and tries to stand on his head.

We need hardly remark that most of the emanations from Congress touching foreign policy just now are to be judged by much the same rules of interpretation we should apply to the resolutions of one of D—l's or Sovereign's assemblies. We must not consider them as acts of government or expressions of national policy. We must examine them as agencies for the delusion of home voters—as part, in fact, of the general humbug of campaigns. Each party just now, within six months of the Presidential nomination, cannot bear to let this dispute with England pass away without getting some capital out of it. A peaceful settlement at this moment would leave all the profits of the escapade with Cleveland and Olney. Something has, therefore, to be done to extract from it a reasonable usufruct for the Republicans. So they are "going him one better." Mr. Gresham said: "You will surely arbitrate this matter." Mr. Olney said: "You must arbitrate or you will be killed." Mr. Cleveland said: "The responsibility of this is awful, but I can bear it." Now, Lodge & Co. say: "You must get out of this continent before the convention meets." This is the precise way in which Debs approaches great questions. They have no difficulties for him.

All we have to say about it to-day is to ask patriotic Americans whether they believe that it is possible for free government, if carried on by such men on such lines, to be permanent or peaceable. This is the question of the hour. It is, we venture to assert, present to the mind of every thinking man and woman in the country. The late chairman of the committee on foreign affairs of the Senate, and a present member of the committee, was present at a public dinner in this city within a month, intoxicated, and delivered himself of an incoherent speech, part oral, part written, which lasted one hour and fifty minutes, and was hiccoughed out to a deriding, hooting, and insulting audience. Yet this man is one of those who have charge of the "national honor" at Washington to-day, and was sent abroad in 1892 as our representative to sit with gentlemen and scholars in a great international tribunal!

DANGER SIGNALS IN NOVELS.

Mr. Thomas Hardy's latest novel has been condemned, on moral grounds, by critics on both sides of the Atlantic with a unanimity quite unparalleled in the case of a writer of his deserved repute. As to the justice of the strictures made on his 'Jude the Obscure' we will not here express an opinion; but the defence which he sets up, or which his friends, at any rate, set up, is worth examining. Objectors to the propriety of many things in the novel are referred to the preface of the unexpurgated edition. There it is distinctly stated that the book is "a novel addressed by a man to men and women of full age," and that, this being remembered, the author is "not aware that there is anything in the handling to which exception can be taken." In other words, the inference is that by openly re-

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pudiating the obligations of a writer *virginibus puerisque*, you successfully escape them.

An obvious difficulty with this inference, at the start, is that the repudiation is not open enough. It appears in a preface. But the majority of novel-readers are as impatient as Bacon of "prefaces and passages and excusations." Many young women invariably begin reading their novel at the last chapter; some begin in the middle and read both ways; but who ever heard of one reading a preface? The danger-signal, to be truly effective, should have been placed conspicuously on the cover. Parents should have been warned in large type to keep the book under lock and key; or dealers required to demand a certificate from all purchasers that they were "of full age." With such precautions, no awkward mistakes would have been possible. The apothecaries do these things better. On their poisonous prescriptions they put a suggestive skull and cross-bones, or take pains to sell their carbolic acid only in a roughened bottle, so that a man reaching out in the dark for a sedative dose will not get one far too effective.

But a more serious objection is that any warning of the kind, however emphatic and plain-spoken, cannot fail to be, under a system of perfectly free buying and selling, provocative and alluring rather than preventive. For every parent put on his guard, for every ingenuous youth turned away, ten buyers and readers will be attracted who might have let the book entirely alone but for the hint that it was no better than it should be. The way in which human nature, being what it is—especially youthful human nature, being what it is—reacts under such hinted prohibitions and obscure intimations of danger, is perfectly well known. The warning is always read as a challenge. Old experience may wag its head as sagely as it pleases, and advise hot blood to wait till it is cooled before doing or reading certain things; but it is of the nature of hot blood to want to do and read things immediately, the sooner the more risky. To prescribe the reading of books is a much more certain way of insuring their neglect, with a kind of settled repugnance, than to forbid their reading.

The futility of such warnings in other fields of literature than fiction has often been demonstrated. Take a theological book like 'The Kernel and the Husk.' The author, Dr. E. A. Abbott, in *his* preface, warns away all those not troubled by doubts about the supernatural. He would disturb no one's faith. But how is such a notice certain to operate? Assuredly by making many a careless turner of the leaves say to himself, "Why should there be any doubts about the supernatural? If some people have them, why shouldn't I? Let's see what this man has to say." Thus the book gets a wider hearing through the very fact of professing to be addressed only to a narrow circle. Every one knows, also, how such warnings fail to work, or in a little while lose all their terror, in the case of suspicious foreign novels. "French novels" may have been for a time a red flag to make a Saxon reader reverse and put on the brakes. We say nothing about the difficulties of a foreign tongue as helping on the temporary taboo, for, of course, we know that everybody except ourselves is perfectly at home in French. But it was not long before the age of the translator dawned, and now the masterpieces of French and Russian fiction are found everywhere, their indecencies covered with nothing except a garb of unintelligible English. In fact, danger signals of this sort are very like those which the sagacious McKinley had put upon foreign-made goods. He was convinced that patriotic and virtuous shoppers, seeing the legend "Made in France" stamped upon otherwise seductive articles, would turn away in horror and call loudly for American products at twice the price. But it did not work that way; and the student of books should learn from this profound student of markets that to stamp goods or books "haute nouveauté de Paris" is not to deter but to incite buyers.

We cannot but think that it is a serious loss with which the English novel is threatened in going over to French fashions. In France, novels and series are stamped "pour les jeunes filles," and no one thinks anything of it, because everybody understands that all novels not so marked are distinctly not for "les jeunes filles." Such discriminations have not been necessary in English fiction until lately. The English novel began in indecency, because it began in an age of loose manners and speech, and also because it was understood to be written for men and clubs, not for women and girls. The Rev. Laurence Sterne had no satisfactory answer to give when, asking a lady if she had read his 'Tristram Shandy,' he was told, "I have not, Mr. Sterne, and, to be plain with you, I am informed it is not proper for female perusal." Few novels at that time were considered fit for female perusal. But the important English fiction of this century has been, until within a decade, of a kind that might safely be left to free publishing and reading without the intervention of censorship, either governmental or parental. We neither affirm nor deny that this has resulted in a limited, a truncated English fiction, as compared with foreign work in the same field. We leave it an open question whether a change from the old custom may not signify a gain for art; but we are certain that it means a loss to our comfort, to our traditions, to our manners.

A BRITISH GUIANA COLONIST UPON THE VENEZUELAN BOUNDARY QUESTION.

GEORGETOWN, January 6, 1896.

To associate the name of the Great Republic with that of a British colony, in a question of international politics, may sound like the coupling of Alexander the Great with Alexander the Coppersmith. All the same is it a fact that the most friendly relations have for many years past subsisted betwen the citizens of the United States and the colonists of British Guiana. This good understanding is the result of a long-continued trade between the two countries, to their mutual advantage. That trade was at first carried on between Dutch colonists in what was in those days a part of Dutch Guiana, and British colonists in what afterwards became the United States of America. With Portland (Me.), Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and with Fernandina (Fla.) and other ports in the South, British Guiana has for years had commercial transactions, exchanging its sugars for cargoes of breadstuffs, lumber, tobacco, ice and iced provisions, mules and other animals, hardware, notions, and things in general. The tariff of the colony does not impose any discriminating duties upon American goods, which enter the colonial market on the same terms as do British goods. Money matters between the commercial men of the two countries are liquidated with hardly a reference to a court of justice. Should the American citizen need to assert his rights by legal process, he would find equal justice meted out to him in the courts of the colony; and so would a Venezuelan. In colonial society, the American is welcomed as a kinsman. He may travel from one end of British Guiana to the other and find himself, everywhere, at least as safe as if he were in the United States; and so might a Venezuelan, and he would find even more safety and freedom than in his own country. Among those who have taken a share in the infantile gold industry of the colony, are some American citizens and one or two Venezuelans. Not a single soldier is stationed in British Guiana; and yet in no South American republic does order reign so peacefully as in this quiet colony.

The people of British Guiana have gone on developing (very slowly, it is true) the resources of their land; living at peace with their neighbors—the Dutch on the one hand, and the Venezuelans on the other. Although they have been from time to time subjected to insult from the Venezuelans, no difference was shown in the treatment of persons of the latter nationality living in the colony or coming there to do business with its inhabitants. The British colonists have taken no part in supporting the ever-recurring revolutions of that unsettled republic. On the contrary, for many years a provision has appeared in the colonial customs-duties law that duty shall be paid upon gunpowder upon its landing in the colony, and that no drawback of duty upon gunpowder should be allowed. This special provision originated in the wish of the Government of British Guiana to discourage the exportation of gunpowder to Venezuela during the troublous times that so often befall that state. This is not urged as any very virtuous act, but it is certainly not an unfriendly one. Then, the Venezuelan State of Guiana, which adjoins the British colony, has often been in revolt against the authority of the President for the time being of the central Government; but no British Sam Houston has appeared upon the scene to repeat the precedent of Texas, although British subjects have for years been numerous in that State, numbers of persons having gone thither from the West Indian Islands to work at the rich gold-fields in that country.

The British colonists have suddenly had their

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attention distracted from the making of their world-famous sugar, the "Demerara crystals," from cutting their splendid timber, the "greenheart," and from the working of their goldfields, by learning that they stand charged with putting themselves in contravention of the Monroe Doctrine, which, it appears, gives a mysterious power to the people of the United States to take away from British colonists territory to which they consider themselves as rightfully entitled as were the British colonists of North America to the colony of New York in the old days before the Revolution of 1776. Having been carefully taught the ten commandments in their youth, those colonists are much shocked by the pronounced determination of Brother Jonathan to outrage the eighth, for "Thou shalt not steal!" would seem to apply to lands as well as to goods. Of course, the colonists know that Americans have been led to take up a hostile position upon the question of the Venezuelan boundary by the importunacy with which it has been misrepresented to them that, in this matter, the colonists of British Guiana have not themselves observed the eighth commandment, despite their early instruction. But here we have the case that Victor Hugo pithily described, where an unfounded charge is taken to be true if repeated often enough. "If some one accused me of stealing the towers of Notre Dame, and repeated the accusation often, I should have to run away from Paris, even though the towers were to be seen standing; for," added Victor Hugo, "no one would believe in my innocence." So it is that, after lustily crying "Stop thief!" for some years, the Venezuelans have led the Americans to believe that British colonists have been robbing that nation of part of its territory.

That there must be two sides to this question can easily be seen by two items relating to it that appeared in the *Daily Chronicle*, a newspaper of Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, in December last. On the 24th of that month was published a cutting from an American journal, in which, telegraphing from Washington, on the 4th, to New York, a correspondent reported the brave words of Representative Livingston of Georgia upon the situation in the terms following:

"Representative Livingston of Georgia, who introduced the joint resolution yesterday looking to the formation of a Congressional committee to investigate the boundary question, was asked to-day what the United States ought to do if Great Britain declines to arbitrate. 'Why, fight her, of course,' was the emphatic reply. 'No other course will comport with our dignity and self-respect. Venezuela is not to be considered in this matter. *Great Britain has violated the Monroe Doctrine. She is continually acquiring additional territory in South America.* We cannot and must not permit this. We should go to war first.'"

There you have in the words italicized the result of Venezuelan misrepresentations. Representative Livingston says: "Great Britain has violated the Monroe Doctrine. She is continually acquiring additional territory in South America." Representative Livingston has been misinformed.

The second item that has been referred to appeared in the Georgetown daily paper already mentioned, on the 27th of December last, and took the form of a public news telegram from New York to British Guiana, as follows:

"NEW YORK, December 26.

"Intelligence from Madrid announces that the newspaper *El Nacional* publishes an article strongly advocating the establishment of an *entente* between Spain and the United States regarding Venezuela, arguing that *Venezuela's claims* against British Guiana *are identical with the ancient ones of Spain against England.*

"The London *Standard* publishes a despatch from Madrid in which it asserts that the article appearing in *El Nacional* is an inspired one and is causing considerable sensation."

Now, here we have the Spanish statement, one clearly hostile to England in motive, and made with the intention of currying favor with the United States; with self-interest at the bottom of it, as regards possible intervention by America on behalf of Cuba. And what is the effect of this unfriendly pronouncement of the "inspired" *Nacional*? This, that Venezuela's claims against British Guiana "are identical with the ancient ones of Spain against England." Surely, this statement of the case, given with all the weight of the evidence of a hostile witness, does not support the allegation of Representative Livingston, that Great Britain "is continually acquiring additional territory in South America." The Spanish statement shows that the "claims" are "ancient" ones; that the "claims" are "identical"; and that, while Great Britain was in possession, which used to be regarded as being nine points of the law, the Spanish nation "claimed" against Great Britain's possession. The alleged "claims" of Spain were never asserted against Great Britain except on Spanish maps. But, long years before Great Britain possessed the land now known as British Guiana, the Dutch had owned it, and there had been international contests over its possession between France and England, of which further notice will be taken later on in these notes. Meanwhile, let it be noted that, so far from Great Britain merely acting in this matter the cowardly part of a bully towards a weak nation, the British Government enjoyed its right to the possession of the territory of British Guiana unquestioned, diplomatically, by a powerful nation such as Spain then was, with her then vast dependencies in the New World, and at a time when the Spaniards had the power of the great Napoleon at their back. To enforce these claims, with all their "ancient and fish-like smell," the Venezuelans would bully the colony of British Guiana, but that the whole power of the British empire is at the back of the colony. The Venezuelans assert "claims" that Spain never made against Great Britain when what is now Venezuela belonged to Spain.

The British Government has expressed its willingness to submit to arbitration the question of the boundary of British Guiana, outside of the Schomburgk line; and to this decision the colonists willingly bow. To give up territory within the Schomburgk line would lead, step by step, to a demand for the surrender of the whole colony, as the application of the Monroe Doctrine might from time to time be capriciously stretched. To make clear to the world how just is the title of Great Britain to territory in its possession, it will be well to take note of the several occasions on which those territories were captured from the Dutch.

On four several occasions did England take from the Dutch that part of the territory now claimed by Venezuela. In 1665 England and Holland being at war, Lord Willoughby, the Governor of Barbados, sent an expedition against the Dutch colonies in Guiana. The success of the English was at first complete. What, at that time, was regarded as the boundary on the left side of the Essequibo? Let one of those who took part in the expedition answer:

"This yeare [1665] the English could boast of the possession of all that part of Guiana abutting on the Atlantick Ocean, from Cayan on the South East *to Oronoque* on the North West (except a small colonie on the River Berbishees), which is noe lesse than six hundred miles."

The colony in Berbice remained in possession of the Dutch. France joined Holland in the war against England, and it is specifically mentioned by the same authority that the settlements of Essequibo, Pomeroon, and Moruca, "indured great misery, in a long siege by the *French*." The manuscript account of the expedition by Major Scott is preserved in the British Museum (Sloane MSS. 3662).

In the end, the Dutch recaptured their settlements, and also took the colony of Surinam, which up to that time had been an English colony. By the third article of the Treaty of Breda, in 1667, it was provided that

"each party shall hold for time to come, in full right of sovereignty, propriety, and possession, all such countries, isles, towns, forts, places, and *colonies* as, whether during this war or before, have been taken and kept from the other by force of arms and in what manner soever, and that as they possessed and enjoyed them the 10th day of May last."

In this manner were the Dutch confirmed in their rights to their ancient settlements between the Corentyne and the Orinoco. Neither France nor England dreamed of asking for the assent of Spain to these transactions. Spanish claims had not been asserted during the military operations between the contending nations, in those settlements in Guiana. How solemnly England felt herself bound by the terms of article 3 of the Treaty of Breda, history attests. Sir John Harman, the English admiral, and Gen. Willoughby not being at the time aware of the fact that a treaty had been entered into, had actually retaken Surinam from the Dutch, and that colony had again come under an English governor. On news of this reaching England, the King sent out orders to restore Surinam to the Dutch, and this was promptly done. England, having acted with such scrupulous good faith in her observance of the rights in Guiana acquired by the Dutch under the Treaty of Breda, cannot be expected to ignore those rights now that by the chances of war she has herself succeeded to the enjoyment of a share in them.

Nor must we lose sight of the important fact that, while the Dutch were confirmed in the possession of their colonies in Guiana by the Treaty of Breda, the English, under the same treaty, were confirmed in the possession of New Netherlands, which became, thereupon, the colony of New York. One of the events of the war had been the capture of New Netherlands by the English. It is illustrative of the point of view from which colonies were then regarded in England, that the keeping of New York, in place of Surinam, "at that time was looked upon by many as a bad exchange" ('European Settlements in America,' London, 1757, vol. ii., p. 179). The Dutch had not obtained the sanction of the Spaniards for their settlement at New York. The English did not think, for a moment, of asking Spain to ratify the exchange. The original title by which New York formed part of the United Colonies was, in fact, exactly the same as that under which the old Dutch settlements between Surinam and the Amacura now form part of the British Empire. Has the Government at Washington ever doubted the validity of the

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title by which the United States hold the Empire State? Papal bulls and Spanish "claims" notwithstanding, Americans possess themselves in peace, assured, as to their right, that Pope and Spaniard could not trouble it.

The second occasion on which the Dutch settlements were captured by the English was in February, 1781, when Great Britain was at war with Holland, Spain, France, and the North American colonies. In 1782 the colonies were taken from the English by a strong expedition sent from France for the express purpose of their capture. On the peace of 1783 France restored the colonies to Holland. As the English had again been turned out of the Dutch colonies, the evidence of an English official as to the boundary on the Essequibo side of the Dutch possessions in Guiana might be regarded as being that of a not too friendly witness. Such evidence is to be found in a chart published in London, on the 6th of October, 1783, by William Faden, Geographer to the King. The chart is one of "the coast of Guyana from the Oronoko to the River of Amazons." It was executed by De la Rochette, from the observations of Captain Edward Thompson of the Royal Navy, made in his Majesty's vessel *Hyæna*, when Captain Thompson "commanded in the Rivers Berbice, Essequebo and Demerari, and governed those colonies after their conquest from the Dutch." The boundary line given in this chart includes the Amacura River, which is that set down by Schomburgk. There is a curious error in this and in at all events one other chart of the Guiana coast published about this time. It is this: that the Barima River is given as the extreme northern line of the Dutch settlements, within which the Amacura is placed, wrongly, to the south of the Barima. As is well known, the Barima runs southerly of the Amacura. This lapse shows the ignorance of the draughtsman, but strongly testifies that the Amacura was within the Dutch possessions. It is well to repeat that the Dutch boundaries in 1665 and 1783, as testified to by Englishmen, were held to be such by persons who had been in authority in the expeditions that captured those colonies, and that their testimony was given after the English had suffered the mortification of expulsion from those possessions, and when there could not be any prospect of recovering them.

It was in 1796 that England became, for the third time, possessed of the Dutch colonies. On this occasion the British Government is said to have informed the Government of Spain, in a friendly manner, what the Dutch held to be the boundaries of their possessions bordering upon those of Spain. No protest was made by Spain against that representation, in any of its details. On the 5th of October of the same year the King of Spain declared war against the King of England, his kingdom, and vassals. Among the many reasons for war alleged by his Majesty—who, be it remembered, was forced into this war by his French allies(?)—was the following:

"The conquest which she [Great Britain] has made of the Colony of Demerary, belonging to the Dutch, and *whose advantageous position puts her in a position to get possession of posts still more important.*"

It will be observed that the name Demerary is here used to include the colonies of Berbice and Essequibo, which had been captured by the English at the same time. Not a word is said therein of any offence taken at the English representation of the boundaries of the Dutch settlements! As the French had themselves been in possession of those very colonies in 1782-83, they no doubt knew what the Dutch boundaries were. Is it not reasonable to conclude that, had they been able to question the correctness of the claim, they would have procured that the King of Spain, whom they were forcing into the war, should specifically resent an invasion of his territorial rights? The *advantageous position* of the Dutch settlements to which the King of Spain referred was, no doubt, their proximity to the Orinoco. The *posts still more important* were, in all reason, the Orinoco and its neighborhood.

The colonies remained in British possession from 1796 until 1802, when they were given up to the Dutch, in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Amiens. During the British occupation the Spaniards had sent a military expedition against that part of the Dutch settlements called Moruca, where, for many years previously, the Dutch had established a fort. The Spaniards, having at that time but the scantiest of population in any part of the right bank, collected their force on the left bank of that river when the expedition set out. They landed at night on the 19th of January, 1797. They were received by Dutch troops who, on the surrender of the colonies, had taken service under the British Government. The Spaniards were completely defeated, and but few escaped. Capt. Rochelle, the brave commander of the Dutch soldiers, died of wounds received in this engagement. On account of his services, the Legislature of the then United Colony of Demerara and Essequibo voted pensions for the support of his children.

For the fourth time the colonies *with their dependencies* (*en onderhoorige districten*) came into the possession of Great Britain on the 17th of September, 1803, and their cession by the Dutch was completed by the convention of the 13th of August, 1814. Some time after the capture of the colonies in 1803, and before their cession in 1814, a chart of the colony was published. It was prepared by an officer of engineers named Walker. Having no copy of this chart at hand, one can only say, from memory, that it gives the Amacura as within the Dutch limits. The Schomburgk boundary line was not evolved out of Sir Robert Schomburgk's imagination.

From the foregoing statements it will be seen that, for 230 years, Englishmen have borne public testimony to the fact that the Dutch were in possession of territory as far as the Amacura. It should be clearly understood that Great Britain does not claim up to the point

"Where Orinoco, in his pride,
Rolls to the main no tribute tide."

It is said that the Orinoco receives the waters of 436 rivers, and of more than 2,000 rivulets and streams. It does not, however, receive one drop of water from the little Amacura.

But, it will be asked, where were the Spaniards all this time? The answer is simple. They had some petty settlements high up the Orinoco. Being men capable of taking extended views, they "took possession" of Guiana, that vast country of 800,000 or 900,000 square miles, between the Orinoco and the Amazon, by saying they did so, when they first made a tiny settlement up the Orinoco. The Portuguese, the French, and the Dutch, being practical people, entered upon the land and possessed themselves of it, while Spain asserted its "claims" to Guiana by making maps that included the vast regions occupied by the nations mentioned. Will any one be bold enough to assert that the Spaniards ever had a colony on any part of the coast of Guiana, or that the Spaniards ever had any settlement there, as a settlement would be understood among nations? On the other hand, the Portuguese, French, Dutch, and the English all had colonies and settlements in some part or other of Guiana. And yet, among the grounds of "claim" set forth for the information of the world by the Venezuelan Government is the following fatuous declaration, in a despatch written on the 26th of January, 1887, by their Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Señor Urbaneja, to the British Minister at Carácas:

"According to the order issued by the King of Spain in 1768, the province of Guiana was bounded on the south by the Amazon and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; so that the acquisitions of other Powers within those limits were not valid until they were made lawful by the consent of said monarch."

How one would like to have the opportunity of reading the *orders* of his most Catholic Majesty as to the boundaries of Mexico and Florida in 1768! How far would those regarding Mexico be respected by the United States?

A great deal still remains to be said as to the history of the European settlements in Guiana, and of the Dutch and English settlements especially, but that boundaries of the space in an American journal may not be transgressed any more than those of a British colony, under the *Pax Britannica*.

Perhaps the cogency of the British case may be best put to Americans by setting forth the historical fact that the Pilgrim Fathers actually contemplated making their settlement in the New World in Guiana rather than in North America. These forefathers of the great republic would, to Spaniards of that period, have been regarded as fit objects for the application of the system *de hæretico comburendo*. Will any reasonable man say that, seeking a place where they might worship God according to conscience, those persecuted exiles would have contemplated settling in any country under the dominion of Spain or within measurable distance of Spanish dominion? Let an old writer of the history of the settlements in New England be heard. Prince, under the year 1617, and between the dates September 15 and November 4, makes the following statements:

"This year, Master Robinson and his Church begin to think of a remove to America, for several weighty reasons, as 1.....
2.....
3.....
Upon their talk of removing, sundry of note among the Dutch would have them go under them, and make them large offers; but, choosing to go under the English Government, where they might enjoy their religious privileges without molestation, after humble prayers to GOD, they first debate, 'whether to go to Guiana, or Virginia?' And though some, and none of the meanest, are earnest for the former, they at length determine for the latter: so as to settle in a distinct body, but under the General Government of Virginia."

"And the young and strong Republic was by these in virtue bred,
She was cradled in adventure, she was nursed in goodmen's dread,
The young and strong Republic that has filled the world with fame,
And with great praise and marvel of the Anglo-Saxon name."

N. DARNELL DAVIS.

LAFENESTRE'S LA FONTAINE.

PARIS, January 2, 1896.

HE who writes for children is assured, if he does his work well, of a longer immortality (if the two words admit of collocation) than any other writers. The 'Fables' of La Fontaine and the 'Contes' of Perrault will be read as long as the French language is spoken and un-

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derstood. Victor Hugo, who had an inordinate vanity, said that he was not jealous of any French poet, but confessed that he was envious of La Fontaine. No French poet ever attained the extraordinary fluidity and ease of style characteristic of La Fontaine's 'Fables' and 'Contes,' except, perhaps, Molière in his "Amphitryon." M. George Lafenestre, who is a distinguished art critic, has been chosen, I do not know for what reason, to write the volume on La Fontaine in the "Grands Écrivains Français," and has acquitted himself very well of his task.

I enter my protest, however, as I have done before on other occasions, against the cut-and-dried method adopted in these essays on our French writers, which consists in making a sort of scientific analysis comparable to a chemical analysis. I cannot help finding something artificial as well as monotonous in a method which induces the critic to give such headings to the successive chapters of his book. In speaking of La Fontaine as "l'écrivain" after having spoken of him as "l'homme," M. Lafenestre subdivides his subject into "l'œuvre," "l'imagination," "la sensibilité," "la pensée," "le style," "l'influence." Taine is answerable for this new method of criticism. I need not, I suppose, show that it is impossible thus to decompose the human mind as the molecule is decomposed into its component atoms. It seems to me a pity that this analytical criticism should have become a fashion in the new generation, which has been greatly inspired by the teachings of Taine. The collection of "Grands Écrivains Français" would gain much in variety and in interest if the same pattern was not applied to its critical essays.

There is little to be said about La Fontaine as a writer, and he need hardly be explained as such; there is more to be said about his life and the relations of his life to his writings. In this respect, M. Lafenestre's volume becomes very interesting, and will be found very readable. The house where La Fontaine was born at Château-Thierry on July 8, 1621, is still in existence. His father was a King's councillor, master of woods and forests, and *capitaine des chasses* in the Duchy of Château-Thierry. At the age of nineteen, he studied law, spent a little time at the Palais, and, feeling no vocation for chicanery, returned to Château-Thierry towards 1644. For ten years he led the easy and lazy life of the province, hunting, riding (he was still a hard rider at the age of seventy), dreaming, reading, and making at times a visit to his friends in Paris. He wrote verses, and paid court to the ladies of his neighborhood; his love affairs were more in the style of Boccaccio and of Rabelais than in the dramatic and sentimental style. His only real passion was poetical. He was a great dreamer, and La Bruyère said of him afterwards: "The man seems coarse, heavy, stupid; he cannot speak nor tell you what he has just seen. When he begins to write, however, he becomes the model of good story-tellers; there is nothing but lightness, elegance, fine delicacy in his works." His first work was a translation of Terence's "Eunuchus." He studied all the great writers of antiquity, and delighted also in the *conteurs*, French and Italian, of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance.

His father left him his office and chose a wife for him, Marie Héricart, daughter of the *lieutenant-criminel* of La Ferté-Milon. He accepted the office and the wife, to please his father; but he neglected the wife as well as the office, and very openly. He conducted the affairs of the community so badly that his wife obtained in 1659 a separation of property. Tallemant des Réaux, speaking of this strange union, says: "His wife says that he dreams so that he sometimes remains for three weeks without believing himself married"; and this applies to the first period of his marriage. Mme. de la Fontaine was lettered—too much so for the taste of her husband, who objected to her criticisms. The only letters of La Fontaine to his wife which we possess were written to her during a journey which he made in 1663 to Limoges. They are very characteristic of the state of their relations after fifteen years of marriage, and sound more like the letters which a gay companion would write to one of his gay friends than like the letters of a husband to his wife. They show, at the same time, that Mme. de La Fontaine was not a prude nor a *bégueule*, to use the words of M. Lafenestre, and allowed her husband all possible liberties.

The famous *surintendant* Fouquet, who was a great patron of letters, offered a pension to La Fontaine, who became one of the visitors and parasites of the little court of Saint-Mandé and of Vaux. He wrote for Fouquet the 'Adonis,' a poem in which is found a tender love for nature's beauties quite unknown in the seventeenth century. In it occurs this verse, which has become proverbial:

"Ni la grâce, plus belle encor que la beauté."

André Chénier used to say that 'Adonis' was the poem which he had read with the greatest profit. It is singular to find the man who was at times so Rabelaisan, writing such delicate and almost melancholy verses as these on voluptuousness:

"O vous, tristes plaisirs où leur âme se noie,
Vains et derniers efforts d'une imparfaite joie."

The friends of Fouquet, even the Marquise de Sévigné, liked something lighter and gayer than 'Adonis,' and La Fontaine was quite able to satisfy them. One of his great successes in the salon of Fouquet was a very light epistle on an adventure of a nun, a gay badinage which charmed Madame de Sévigné so much that she placed La Fontaine at once "among the gods." Every three months La Fontaine had to give a quittance for his pension in the shape of some madrigal. We do not understand such relations in our time, but they seemed quite natural in the seventeenth century; all poets were the pensioners of some king, prince, or great lord. It seemed as natural to La Fontaine to flatter Fouquet as it seemed natural afterwards for him to flatter Madame de Montespan, Louis XIV., Colbert, the Dauphin. It ought to be said, also, that he really liked Fouquet, who was able to inspire great friendships, and who was a very intelligent and able man. It was in Fouquet's house that he became acquainted with Chapelain, Mademoiselle de Scudéry, and Molière, of whom he said at once, "C'est mon homme."

La Fontaine spent lazily three years of his life on the 'Songe de Vaux,' a work written in honor of his patron and his magnificence, which was left unfinished and ought never to have been begun, though here and there you may find in it some fine verses. There is not much more to be said about 'Elymène.' When Fouquet was arrested and thrown into prison, La Fontaine had the courage to stand by him and to make an eloquent appeal to the clemency of the King. "Et c'est être innocent que d'être malheureux," one of the verses of his fine ode, has become proverbial. La Fontaine was exiled to Limoges, with his uncle, and it was from there that he wrote to his wife the letters which I have already mentioned. In 1664 La Fontaine had returned to Paris, and he spent his time between the capital and the house of the Duchess of Bouillon at Château-Thierry. The Duchess was one of the celebrated nieces of Mazarin, Marie Anne Mancini. During this period he wrote 'Psyché' and the "Quinquina" (after an illness of the Duchess, who had been cured by quinine). He also wrote his "Joconde," the first of his famous 'Contes'; and, after "Joconde," seven other *contes* in verse on subjects taken from Boccaccio. The volume of the "Nouvelles en vers tirées de l'Arioste et de Boccace," without any signature, had an immense success. A new edition came out with other *contes*. On March 31, 1668, appeared the first six parts of the 'Fables,' dedicated to the Dauphin. From that date La Fontaine may be said to have entered into immortality. His bookseller, Barbin, had to print immediately new editions, and soon afterwards published another series of Fables.

La Fontaine was at this time in a very productive vein, for he published also the 'Amours de Psyché et de Cupidon.' He had announced this work in the second series of 'Fables' in this way:

"Bornons ici notre carrière;
Les longs ouvrages me font peur.
Loin d'épuiser une matière
On n'en doit prendre que la fleur.
Il s'en va temps que je reprenne
Un peu de forces et d'haleine
Pour fournir à d'autres projets.
Amour, ce tyran de ma vie,
Veut que je change de sujets;
Il faut contenter son envie:
Retournons à Psyché."

With the versatility of his character and of his talent, he wrote, in 1691, a psalm in verse (a very feeble production, by the by) in a Jansenist 'Receuil de Poésies Chrétiennes,' and at the same moment some new 'Fables' and some new 'Contes.' Two years afterwards, he writes at the same time a poem on chastity, 'Saint-Malo,' and a new series of 'Contes,' the most licentious of the whole series. The two books were interdicted at the same moment—the first because La Fontaine had imprudently called the Cardinal de Bouillon "Altesse sérénissime" (a title to which the Cardinal had no right), and the second on account of its bold immorality. La Fontaine always needed some protection and some material help; he found, at this period, a new Providence in Madame de la Sablière, an amiable woman, who was familiarly called "La Tourterelle" (the Dove), the wife of a rich *fermier-général*. She was the friend (I use a mild expression) of the Marquis de la Fare. La Fontaine spent seven or eight years in the house of this amiable woman, which was called the Folie-Rambouillet; he remained there in a state of complete freedom, writing as he pleased and when he pleased. La Fontaine was elected a member of the French Academy after Boileau. He followed Madame de la Sablière to Paris, where she said she had taken with her "only her dog, her cat, and La Fontaine." He led to the end the life of a parasite and of an epicurean, and he remained also to the end a sort of Polyphile, writing on the most various subjects, always with the same ease and graceful fluidity of style, at times with a curious vein of sadness and melancholy, which was very rare in his time. In 1692 he fell ill. Madame de la Sablière was in a convent, but he found a new protector in the person of M. d'Hervart, a *maître des requêtes*, who had a large and splendid hôtel. He lived there till he died, on April 13, 1695, at the age of seventy-four.

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Correspondence.

ENEMIES OF MANKIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the "late unpleasantness" it may interest some of your readers to recall the opinion expressed some fifty years ago by such a distinguished writer as the late Judge Haliburton ("Sam Slick") in his 'Wise Saws' (c. 26), as to the relations which ought to exist between the two greatest branches of the English people, and the punishment that ought to be meted out to wilful disturbers of the peace. If so, here it is:

"Now we are two great nations, the greatest by a long chalk of any in the world—speak the same language, have the same religion, and our constitutions don't differ no great odds. We ought to draw closer than we do. We are big enough, equal enough, and strong enough not to be jealous of each other. United we are more than a match for all the other nations put together, and can defy their fleets, armies, and millions. Single we couldn't stand against all, and if one was to fall where would the other be? Mourning over the grave that covers a relative whose place can never be filled. It is authors of silly books, editors of silly papers, and demagogues of silly parties that helps to estrange us. I wish there was a gibbet high enough and strong enough to hang up all these enemies of mankind on."

Yours, etc., J. M. Geldert, Jr.

Halifax, N. S., January 17, 1896.

A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY AT WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are many objections to establishing a national university at Washington, but the strongest of all is the incompatibility of the pursuit of truth with responsibility to politicians. During the past few weeks we have had a striking indication of what would happen at a national university. Many eminent professors, exercising their right as citizens, have spoken and written on the Venezuelan question, and immediately Jingoes in the press and elsewhere have assailed those professors as if they were traitors, idiots, or flunkeys. It makes no difference that Prof. von Holst of Chicago, or Prof. Moore of Columbia, or Profs. C. E. Norton and Wm. James of Harvard, happen to plead for a sober consideration of the Venezuelan quarrel and to denounce war as uncivilized, up jump the Jingoes, led by the loquacious Theodore Roosevelt, and scream, "What business have these college professors to meddle, anyway? They don't know anything about the subject, and if they did they ought to hold their tongues."

Of course, only editors, or other persons with a magnified sense of their own importance and a lack of humor, who print three articles a month in the magazines and grant interviews to newspaper reporters every day, on any subject, would pooh-pooh the opinions of men like Norton, and Von Holst, and Wm. James, who think more than they talk. But should not this episode serve as a warning against any proposed national university, whose teachers would be at the mercy of every crank in Congress or out of it—for they would be regarded as public servants, unpermitted to say their souls were their own? If one of them dared to affirm that war is a crime, how quickly would Senator Lodge—whom Milton, with prophetic genius, described so admirably in 'Paradise Lost,' Book II., 109–112—have him impeached or arrested. And if another, in lecturing on economics, felt it his duty to point out the fallacies of protection or free silver, he would be squelched by McKinley or Teller.

The truth is, that most of the most important topics would be ruled out. Political economy could not, for reasons just suggested, be taught; nor the history of the Reformation, because that would offend the Catholics; nor the history of England, which would rouse the Jingoes; nor criminology, for that would bring out some unpleasant statistics about the Irish, and so alienate the "Irish vote"; nor the history of the United States, for if the Mexican war were truly narrated, it would anger the present disciples of President Polk; and the Rebellion could not be taught so as to satisfy both Northerners and Southerners; nor could Evolution, because all the orthodox would cry out against a doctrine which deprives them of the pleasure of believing that unbaptized infants are damned.

Perfect freedom is the indispensable condition for the discovery and imparting of truth; and at Washington that condition could not exist. The advocates of the scheme, which would give easy berths to a good many office-seekers, protest, of course, that care would be taken to maintain freedom of speech. But there are many ways, besides gagging, of silencing the preacher of unpopular doctrines, and we cannot doubt that they would all be used. Probably no self-respecting professor would accept such a position of servitude; certainly the most eminent professors, to whom free speech is dearer than preferment, could never be enticed into such a trap. T.

January 11, 1896.

THE COLORS OF MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see by the morning's papers that the medal recently presented to the Long Island Historical Society is garnished with a specially prepared ribbon, combining the colors of Brooklyn with "the colors of the State of Maryland—orange and black."

The colors of the State of Maryland are not orange and black, but gold (or yellow) and black. They are the colors of the Calvert arms, which have been used in the seal and on the flag of Maryland from early colonial times. They can be seen on the original exemplification of arms to George Calvert (1622) in the possession of the Maryland Historical Society, in Gwillim or any manual of heraldry, or on the State flag in the City Hall, Baltimore. Orange is not a heraldic color.

The colors of the Baltimore Baseball Club are, I believe, orange and black; but that is not the State of Maryland.—I am, sir, etc.,

Wm. Hand Browne.

Maryland Historical Society.

THE REASON FOR GLAZED PAPER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Grosvenor's 'Constantinople,' in No. 1594, I find this sentence: "Unfortunately the paper is so highly glazed that the print cannot be read, especially by artificial light, without trying even the strongest and most youthful eyes." This is no new complaint, but one frequently heard in your columns, and many readers of the *Nation* must be left in a state of wonder at the obstinacy of publishers in using such paper in spite of repeated protests. Yet the reason for so doing is simple. I have not seen Prof. Grosvenor's book, but I understand that it is elaborately illustrated. Now it is perfectly understood by artists, engravers, printers, and publishers that decent printing of text cuts is possible only on this highly calendered paper to which your critic objects; and if such cuts are to be used at all, they must be printed on such paper or ruined in the printing. To me it seems that the publisher is praiseworthy rather than blameworthy for determining to print his cuts properly, but this is the judgment of an artist. A literary critic may be of the opposite opinion, but ought be not to recognize the reason for the publisher's choice, even in blaming it, and not leave it to be understood by the public that it is a mere matter of whim, or worse, of economy? The rough, hand-made paper which is the delight of bibliophiles is the despair of the poor designer of illustrations, and its use would probably lead to the abandonment of all illustration, or its restriction to such purely archaic adornment as Mr. Morris uses in the publications of the Kelmscott Press.

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 19, 1896.

[We were perfectly aware of the cause of the use of glazed paper. The *abuse* we owe partly to the change in the mode of wood-engraving in the quest for tint and half-tone, and especially to the advent of cheap "process." Often, for the sake of a small number of cuts in the text, the entire readability of a book (hygienically speaking) is destroyed. The effect on text-books for the young in particular is deplorable when we consider all the temptations of that age to overtax the eyes.—Ed. Nation.]

SCHOOLS IN FRANCE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The sweeping conclusion, impliedly endorsed by you in your recent note on public instruction in ante-Revolutionary France, to the effect that the French peasantry of the *ancien régime* were in the full enjoyment of an excellent system of primary education, needs much qualification.

The number and quality of rural schools varied widely from province to province—Mr. Stanley Weyman's low view of the mental condition of the peasant being perfectly correct as to Brittany and the central provinces, and approximately so as to Gascony and the Toulousian; while your reviewer's opinion holds good as to the northern and northeastern provinces, where simple primary schools were abundant.

You point to the fact, as confirmatory of your general position, that in the districts now forming the department of the Meurthe-et-Moselle there were, in 1789, 599 communes, in 566 of which were one or more schools. As an offset to this, permit me to say that records of the time (cited by M. Taine) show that in Gascony "most of the rural districts are without schoolmasters," while in the Toulousian only "ten parishes out of fifty have schools." And in Brittany and the central provinces matters were even worse than in the south. M. Albert Babeau, whom you cite approvingly, gathers, from an inspection of marriage registers of the period, that in the Nivernois only "13 per cent. of the men and nearly 6 per cent. of the women" could sign their names. Taking, then, the average of these extremes, considering the kind of instruction likely to be doled

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out to the lower classes by the French clergy in Voltaire's century, and not forgetting the bestial use made by Jacques Bonhomme of his newly acquired liberty in 1789, it would seem that the conclusions of your reviewer on "the universality and efficiency of village schools in France under the *ancien régime*" need revisal.

W. R. K.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., January 5, 1896.

[We cannot prolong this discussion. No monograph on the history of primary education in Brittany exists, to our knowledge, but M. Allain quotes M. Léon Maître for the district of Nantes, in which sixty-four out of eighty-one parishes had schools in the eighteenth century. We have further knowledge of the fact that La Chalotais, the famous Breton *procureur-général* of the Parlement of Rennes, published his 'Essai d' éducation nationale' in 1763, in which he complained, presumably from acquaintance with the condition of things in his own province, that "the Brothers of Christian Doctrine, who are termed *ignorantins*, teach reading and writing to people who ought only to learn how to draw plans and to handle the file and the plane, but who will no longer do so. . . . The laborers and artisans send their children to the local colleges." An echo to the complaints of La Chalotais is found in the complaints made to the Bishop of St.-Dié in 1779:

"There will never be any good popular education until the country schoolmasters, who depopulate alike the fields and workshops, are driven away. The complaints that the fields are left without workers, that the number of artisans is diminishing, and that the class of vagabonds is increasing, are due to the fact that our towns and villages are filled to overflowing with a multitude of schools. There is no hamlet without its *grammairien*."

With regard to central and southern France it may be allowed that in sparsely populated districts, like the mountains of Auvergne and the sandy wastes of the Landes, schools were few and far between in the last century, as they are at the present time; but even in the Landes there were, before the Revolution, 235 schools, though unequally distributed, in 330 communes. These statements of facts are mainly derived from the work of M. Allain on primary education in France before the Revolution, cited in the *Nation* for December 26, 1895.

M. Albert Babeau treats the whole question briefly, with references to authorities, in the first chapter of his 'Écoles de village pendant la Révolution,' in which he shows that he had formed a higher opinion of the extent of rural education in ante-Revolutionary France than in his earlier works, 'Le Village sous l'ancien régime' and 'La Ville rurale dans l'ancienne France.' He arrived at the conclusion endorsed by our correspondent, that primary education was more widely diffused in the north and east than in central and southern France, but his conclusions need to be modified in a more favorable sense since the publication of numerous local monographs by Fayet, Combarieu, Allain, and others.

As to the nature of the education given in the village schools, it is true that it did not much exceed reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and the catechism; but even this amount of education must have raised the French peasants, and did raise them, from the condition of absolute savages, which still remains the legendary belief and is endorsed by Weyman in his latest novel. "Bestial" is an absurdly strong word to apply to the action of the French peasants in 1789 in attacking the châteaux of the nobility.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

AN elaborate 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology,' edited by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton, will be issued by Macmillan & Co., together with a treatise on 'The Architecture of Europe: An Historical Study,' by Russell Sturgis; 'The Anatomy of the Human Body,' by Drs. John Cleland and John Yule Mackay, of Glasgow and Dundee; 'The Principles of the Transformer,' an electrical work, by Dr. Frederick Bedell of Cornell; and 'Studies in Structure and Style,' by W. T. Brewster of Columbia. The same publishers' spring list embraces 'The United States of America, 1765-1865,' by Edward Channing of Harvard; 'The Child and Childhood in Folk-Thought,' by Alexander F. Chamberlain of Clark University; 'Vocal Culture in its Relation to Literary and General Culture,' by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; 'A Brief History of English,' by Prof. Oliver F. Emerson of Cornell; 'Woman under Monasticism: Chapters in Convent Life and Saint Worship,' by Lina Eckenstein; 'The Empire of the Ptolemies,' by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy; Dante's 'Divine Comedy,' rendered in the nine-line metre of Spenser by George Musgrave, M.A., Oxford; Friedrich Ratzel's 'History of Mankind,' translated by A. J. Butler; the Works of Friedrich Nietzsche, in eleven volumes, edited in English by Alexander Tille; Georg Brandes's 'William Shakspere: A Critical Study,' translated by William Archer; a posthumous volume of 'New Poems,' by Christina Rossetti; and a 'History of Nineteenth-Century Literature,' by Prof. Saintsbury.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The Historical Development of Modern Europe from 1815 down to 1880,' by Prof. Charles M. Andrews of Bryn Mawr; 'The West Indies and the Spanish Main,' a history of settlements, by James Rodway; 'The Nicaragua Canal: its History and its Future,' by Prof. Lindley M. Keasbey; 'A History of Modern Banks of Issue,' by Charles A. Conant; 'Early Long Island,' by Martha Bochée Flint; 'The Perambulation of the Forest of Dartmoor,' by Samuel Rowe, with numerous illustrations; and a new edition of Dasent's 'Tales of the Fjeld,' with 100 illustrations by Moyr Smith.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'The Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac,' by the late Eugene Field. We should have mentioned last week that they are the American publishers of the "Warwick Library of English Literature," of which we gave some account.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in preparation 'Shakspere's Heroes on the Stage,' by Charles E. L. Wingate.

Ginn & Co. will publish next month 'Selections from Keats's Poems,' by Prof. Arlo Bates.

In his 'Short Historical Latin Grammar' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. W. M. Lindsay presents a book based upon his large work called 'The Latin Language' (lately reviewed in these columns), and containing the main doctrines of that work without the detail of evidence upon which they are founded. It is a convenient little volume of some 200 pages; the matter is well arranged and clearly expounded. It is intended for beginners in the study of the development of Latin declension and conjugation. The language of it is simple, avoiding all but the most necessary technical terms, and the book may be highly recommended to those for whom it was compiled.

In April, 1892, Mr. Timothy Hopkins of the Southern Pacific Company (of Kentucky) presented his railway books to Stanford University, and made generous provision for their increase. In order that the collection, which, by September, 1895, had grown to 9,245 books and pamphlets, might be made immediately useful to those interested in the subject—if they be railroad men they may get passes to California—and that the increase of the collection might be facilitated, the library of the Stanford University recently put forth, as number one of its publications, a 'Catalogue of the Hopkins Railway Library,' by Frederick J. Teggart, A.B. It is a quarto of 241 double-columned pages, arranged on a simple classification with an index of personal names. It appears to be accurately made. The most striking features of the library evident upon cursory examination of the catalogue are the large pamphlet collections on the Erie and on the Pacific Railways, and the lamentable incompleteness of the sets of periodicals and reports. On page 191 curiosity is piqued by the entry, *s. v.* Southern Pacific Company, of "A collection of 740 pieces of stationery in use by the company. Album, folio."

The eighth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois, on the subject of taxation, has been recently issued. It is a thoroughgoing single-tax document, and devoid of any new ideas on the subject; but it contains elaborate statistics of land and building values and assessments in Chicago, which are not without value. The method by which the figures were ascertained for all the tables is described with praiseworthy fulness.

The ultra-conservative spirit of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's treatise, 'Éducation et Instruction' (Paris: Firmin-Didot), will be a surprise even to those long familiar with the author's stanch adherence to the Latin tradition in French literature and education. In a field where, though not a stranger, he is evidently not as much at home as in his own, the less agreeable traits of the great literary critic are so strongly marked as to become repellent. We cannot imagine that his acrimony and "terrible assurance" will change the opinions of many as to the relative educational value of Latin and the sciences, or aid his colleagues in strengthening the educative influence of their work. The subject of the treatise itself is important enough, and M. Brunetière's contribution to it will interest members of the faculties of our higher institutions.

Müller's 'Vademecum für Studierende' will prove attractive to all interested in German student life, and especially so to those who expect to become students in Germany. The first part of the book is devoted to fraternities, and a brief historical sketch is given of the four general classes into which these fraternities naturally group themselves: the Corps, the Landsmannschaft, the Burschenschaft, and the new or free Burschenschaft, which dates from

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1883, and whose aim is to counteract some of the apparently degenerating influences of the older fraternities, *e. g.*, duelling, court of honor, etc. Besides this historical sketch, the characteristics of each class at the present time are also set forth, with statistical tables showing at what universities the various fraternities are represented, the colors, date of founding, and motto of each. Another chapter exhibits all the scientific societies connected with the universities; another is devoted to fraternities and societies of all kinds connected with technical schools. A chapter on duelling shows how this practice has arisen in the universities, describes the instruments used, gives the regulations governing it, and demonstrates how little the laws have succeeded in restraining it. The drinking customs are explained somewhat in detail, and a number of student sports or games are elucidated. Finally, a collection of students' songs makes the book serviceable for the "Commers."

After a very deliberate and careful piecemeal publication, Dr. Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' has been brought to a conclusion (Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is attractively printed, and employs the Gothic letter for the editorial definition, etc., and the Roman (without substantive capitalization) for the illustrative quotations which lend the work its special distinction. The alphabetical sequence is interfered with by an arrangement of which the method is not clear, as witness these examples: *Trauen* introduces a paragraph, of nearly two columns, ending with *Traualtar* (which should have preceded not only *Trauen*, but *Traube*), *Traugebühr . . . Trauzeuge;* the next paragraph is introduced by *Trauer*. So *Tropfen* (sub.) must be sought under *Tropfbar*, together with a series of compounds closed by *Tropfenweise;* the next paragraph reverts to *Tropfen* (verb). The literary quotations are, as we have heretofore pointed out, very rich in drafts upon Goethe and Schiller, and also upon such recent sources as Ranke, Moltke, and Bismarck in particular. The first page of the final volume cites not less than sixteen authors; the last (and it is a short page) some twenty. About thirty-five quotations are found under *Strom* (to choose an instance at random). This feature, with the shades of meaning implied, makes Heyne a very desirable companion for students bent on something more than bare translation, and an interesting browsing-ground for those who have mastered the language. The etymologies are compact yet not stinted.

Lemcke & Buechner send us also the concluding parts of the eighth edition of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon,' edited by J. Penzler. The two volumes number 1,064 and 1,202 pages respectively, in condensed but clear typography, displayed in double columns in the Roman letter. This gazetteer has a solid reputation for accuracy, and its range of inclusion is very great, especially for Germany, where every place having a hundred inhabitants is admitted; for Austria and Switzerland the lowest limit is 150, and for the rest of Europe, 300 to 500. Abundant details as to postal, telegraphic, railway, and industrial facilities are given, and the claim is not rashly made that for every place in the world of commercial significance this work is valuable for reference. It is finished just as an English work of large dimensions, 'Longmans' Gazetteer of the World,' makes its appearance, and as Levasseur's 'Lexique Géographique du Monde Entier' is beginning to put out its fascicules. But of gazetteers there cannot be too many, if good, and each will supplement all the rest by its peculiar copiousness.

From the same firm we have received the fifth issue of the Spruner-Sieglin Hand-Atlas for the history of antiquity, the Middle Ages, and of modern times, in its first division, containing maps of the Persian Empire and of the Macedonians in Alexander's time, the Parthian dominions, the north African seacoast, and the Roman Empire in the second and third centuries A.D.

Dr. Harrison Allen's article, of forty pages and four plates, "On the Embryos of Bats," is No. 2 of vol. i. of the 'Contributions from the Zoölogical Laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania.' About a dozen genera are represented, in more than thirty figures. The material was not all that was desired, but, according to the author, it shows the differences between fœtal and adult stages in bats to be greater in kind and degree than in other mammals, and that the numerous contrasts between embryonic and adult forms may be accepted as evidence of the relatively low grade of the entire order, the high degree of specialization notwithstanding.

In a November extra from the *American Journal of Science*, vol. l., Prof. O C. Marsh treats of "Restorations of some European Dinosaurs, with suggestions as to their place among the Reptilia." The plates contain restorations of Compsognathus, Scelidosaurus, Hypsilophodon, and Iguanodon. In a second paper from the same volume, December, he considers the "Affinities and Classification of the Dinosaurian Reptiles." On the plate, twelve restorations are figured for comparison. The Dinosaurs are placed as a sub-class of the Reptilia and distributed among three orders, Theropoda, Sauropoda, and Predentata, with twenty-six families and sixty-eight genera. The affinities of the exceptional genus Ceratosaurus on the one hand and Archæopteryx on the other bring these Saurians and the birds near together. Remoter affinities are traced through the Hallopoda, Zanclodon, Aëtosaurus and Belodon to the Crocodilia, by way of common ancestry. The same volume of the *Journal* contains a notice, by Prof. J. B. Woodworth, of his discovery in the Newark Group, at Avondale, New Jersey, of foot-prints similar to those of the Dinosaurs of the Connecticut valley.

In a recent circular sent out by Prof. Pickering, we learn that an interesting examination of variable stars has been in progress. Prof. S. I. Bailey, in charge of the Harvard station at Arequipa, Peru, has made numerous photographs of globular clusters, which have proved, upon examination, to contain an extraordinary number of variable stars—not a general condition of stellar clusters. The photographs used in this discussion were taken at Arequipa with the 13-inch Boyden telescope. In one cluster (Canes Venatici), no less than eighty-seven stars have been found to be variable. That this is unmistakable is proved by an independent examination of the plates by Prof. Pickering and Mrs. Fleming as well as Prof. Bailey. Another cluster shows forty-six variables, while others show three, four, or five each. In general, no variables have been found within about one minute of the centre of the clusters, on account of the closeness of the stars; and none of those found are more than ten minutes distant from the centres of the clusters. Some of the variable stars have short periods, of not more than a few hours. The individual stars in close clusters can be readily found only from photographic or other charts on which they are marked. The Harvard Observatory is preparing to publish charts of this kind, and meantime marked photographs will be sent to astronomers desiring to study them.

We learn from *Science* that a new star has been found by Mrs. Fleming in the constellation Centaurus, from a comparison with the Draper Memorial photographs. Its spectrum is monochromatic, and closely resembles that of the adjacent nebula. Like the new stars in Cygnus, Auriga, and Norma, it appears to have changed into a gaseous nebula. It is already beginning to fade.

As an indication of the recognition which women are beginning to receive in German-speaking countries, it may be mentioned that upon the occasion of the discussion of the bill for the admission of women to universities, a member of the Austrian Parliament said of Frau von Gizycki (whose husband was the well-known writer on ethics and professor at the University of Berlin), referring to her recent speeches in Vienna, that she would be an honor to any parliament in the world, and that of the three hundred and fifty-three members then present there were not many who could measure themselves against her for eloquence, culture, or learning.

A significant enterprise has just been launched in Vienna by the Archæological Committee for the gymnasia in that capital. A series of permanent photographic prints from approved plaster casts of sculpture that has come down to us from antiquity, will be issued for school use in connection with Greek and Roman history and mythology, at a price averaging fifteen cents a folio plate. The first of six instalments is now before us (Vienna: Carl Graeser; New York: Westermann), consisting of the well-known Augustus from Prima Porta, Zeus from Otricoli, Laokoön group (Vatican), Pericles (British Museum), Homer Sanssouci), and a less familiar bas relief of Orpheus, Eurydice, and Hermes (Villa Albani). The prints share the inferiority of the material they counterfeit, but on the other hand it has been possible to control the lighting so as to bring out the details of the statuary. Though some retouching is inevitable in all these mechanical reproductions, the present series is on the whole very satisfactory as well as cheap. There would appear to be no limit to it. A text-book of moderate compass will accompany the complete portfolio.

Mr. Unwin's new venture, the monthly *Cosmopolis* (New York: International News Co.), is a handsome large octavo, and justifies its subtitle, "an international review," by printing three tiers of articles in as many languages, English, French, and German. Stevenson's posthumous "Weir of Hermiston" leads the table of contents, and is bracketed with articles by Sir Charles Dilke, Henry James, and Edmund Gosse. Paul Bourget ushers in the French section, followed by Anatole France, Édouard Rod, Georg Brandes, and Francisque Sarcey. Ernest von Wildenbruch, Mommsen, Erich Schmidt, Spielhagen, and Helferich form the German contingent, and these nationalities reappear among the editors of the concluding chronicles. This, as will be seen, is a brave showing of names, and it would be a narrow intellect that could not find interesting reading in each division. Perhaps a first number calls for no further remark.

The London music-halls, to which we owe, if not the invention, the suggestion, of the substantive "Jingo," some time ago undertook to fix the pronunciation of "Rhodesia," the name of the ambitious South African premier's vi-

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sionary domain, uncomfortably adjacent to the Transvaal. The mute *e* proving troublesome for geographic rhyming, it was boldly sounded, as follows:

"The boom, the boom, the boom, boys,
In fair Rhodesia.
Hurrah for Cecil Rhodes, boys,
The friend of Zambesia!
A cheer for Willie Rezan, boys,
And one for Jameson!
But a tiger for Barnato, boys,
And the lands of Livingstone."

A correspondent writes: "In two different editions of the one-volume edition of Lowell's Poems I find a singular misreading of a word. The verses 'To a Pine-Tree,' stanza four, read in the first line,

'To the slumberer asleep 'neath thy glooming';

certainly a 'damnable iteration.' The early editions have 'lumberer.'" The error has happily not been perpetuated in the ten volume Riverside Edition of Lowell's Works.

The Department of State has, as our readers know, hopefully begun a series of calendars which will help to extend the proper basing of American history on documents. An agency like the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, formed to deal with historical materials not possessed by the Department, was still needed, and the establishment of such a commission was, as we have already announced, the most important step taken by the American Historical Association at its late meeting in Washington. We are now able to report the Commission constituted, and ready to begin its inquiries. It consists of Prof. J. F. Jameson of Brown University as chairman; Dr. Douglas Brymner, archivist of the Dominion of Canada; Mr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia; Prof. Wm. P. Trent of the University of the South; and Prof. Frederick J. Turner of the University of Wisconsin.

—We call attention to the communication, on another page, from British Guiana. It is from the pen of the Hon. N. Darnell Davis, C.M.G., Collector of the Port of Georgetown, and a well-known historical student and writer. Mr. Davis possesses a strong affection for the United States, and is unusually well-informed as to its earlier and later history. He has for many years been a contributor to the *Nation*.

—The Devil cannot complain that he has not his due in the current issue of the Oxford English Dictionary (Development-Diffluency). Six pages, or eighteen columns, are allotted to him under his proper rubric, to say nothing of the derivatives from the Latin and French roots. His elusive and metamorphic character is evidenced by the long catalogue of spellings of his name, from *diobul* to *del*, and his alias the dickens; by his vacillating gender in Old High German and Old English—from masculine to neuter; and by the numerous shapes popularly ascribed to him over and above the conventional likeness to Pan and the satyrs. Even in the Scriptures, Jerome must needs restore the Hebrew Satan in place of the διάβολος of the Septuagint and the *diabolus* of the Old Latin version. Wyclif, with his *Sathan*, followed the Vulgate except in one of the Psalms, where he let in "the deuell." The Devil's proverbial aversion to holy water was recognized as early as 1570; he was not so black as painted in 1596; he made his appearance when talked of in 1672; and he was "to pay" in 1711. A "poor devil" excited pity in 1698. Moxon, etymologizing in 1683, explained the name "printer's devil" by the fact that "these Boys . . . in a Printing House commonly black and Dawb themselves." An unfeed junior-counsel, however, is a "devil" irrespective of color, like his brother fag the *nègre* of the French art ateliers. Finally, to have done with his Majesty, we remark that *deviltry*, an Americanism for *devilry*, is supported by dialectal English. Another vocable possessing an obvious interest, in this instalment, is Dictionary, 'a repertory of *dictiones*, phrases or words.' The word is traced (*circa* 1225) to Joannes de Garlandia, a native of England, who adopted the form *dictionarius*, while Petrus Berchorius, who died in Paris in 1362, preferred *dictionarium*. Sir Thomas Elyot arrived with his *dictionary* in 1538, as, across the Channel, R. Estienne with *dictionaire* in 1539. The earliest works of this kind were bilingual or polyglot.

—Much curiosity attaches to the substantive *devoir*, which in Middle English was spelt *dever*, and stressed on the last syllable (de-vair'), then on the penult (dev'-ver), with the spellings *devour*, *devor*, *deavour*, and presently, by Caxton's powerful aid, *devoir* as in French, though retaining the penultimate stress. The English traditional form completely died out after 1600, and by degrees the French pronunciation got and retained the upper hand. The 'Song of Roland' (*circa* 1400) has: "Trist us neuer, If we in this mater do not our deuour"; and Tom Hood in 1845 revived this archaism for the sake of a pun—"He went to pay her his devours, When he'd devoured his pay." *Dicker*, too, has a singular history, as coming from the Latin *decuria*, 'a parcel of 10,' and being in vogue among our Teutonic ancestors in their skin tributes to the Roman conquerors, just as later in this country in our fur dealings with the Indians. The most Protean of all words in the present section, as respects meanings, is perhaps *dicky*, which denotes seven distinct articles of apparel, as, a detachable shirt-front, a collar, a bib, a petticoat, an apron, an oil-skin suit, besides a rag-bag, a driver's seat, and a naval officer. *Diaper* has nothing to do, etymologically, with "d'Ypres," in spite of all that town's napery. The verb *dictate*, we are told, is now usually accented on the last syllable in England, but Byron and Shelley consistently accented the first, as does certainly the best American usage. Pope, Thomson, Young, Cowper, Keats, and Tennyson to the contrary notwithstanding, *diamond* tends to become trisyllabic, as Shakspere made it; but metrical license will doubtless keep the pronunciation from "crystallizing." With *different* "the usual construction is now with *from;* that with *to* (after *unlike*, *dissimilar to*) is found in writers of all ages, and is frequent colloquially, but is by many considered incorrect. The construction with *than* (after *other than*) is found in Fuller," etc., to Dasent, as Dr. Fitzedward Hall has shown. A euphemistic American sense of *difficulty*, 'a quarrel, assault, homicide,' is unnoticed under this word. Longfellow's "*diapason* of the cannonade" is, we venture to think, misapportioned under the strictly musical definition; it belongs rather under the "more or less vaguely extended, with the idea of 'all the tones or notes.'" The poet chose it for its polysyllabic dignity, heightened in effect by its infrequent use and consequent obscurity of meaning—*omne ignotum pro magnifico*.

—The coincident progress towards completion of Pottier's Daremberg-Saglio and of Wissowa's rewritten edition of Pauly's classical encyclopædia in ten volumes (Stuttgart: Metzler), which has maintained its ascendency as the standard work of reference of classical philologians and antiquarians for more than half a century, wears the aspect of an international handicap match of polyhistoric scholarship. The new Pauly, like the old, is without illustrations, although volume i. contains a map of the Lacus Albanus region, a plan of Alexandria, and a map of the Oropian Sanctuary of Amphiaraos. Unlike the old, it is printed in two-column large octavo pages in Latin type, and on good paper. Unlike Daremberg-Saglio's 'Dictionnaire des antiquités grecques et romaines,' its strongest point is nomenclature, so that it conflicts neither with its French rival nor with Iwan von Müller's great 'Handbuch der philologischen Wissenschaften.' Its editor's reputation as a critical scholar in the domain of Latinity, of Roman mythology and archæology is well established. He occupies the chair of classical philology in the University of Marburg, and is an industrious contributor to Roscher's uncompleted 'Lexikon der griechischen und römischen Mythologie.' A characteristic article of the first semi-volume, which stops in the middle of the article *Alexandros*, is the multiple one under *Aelius*. Including *Aelia*, it embraces no less than one hundred and eighty-four individual subjects, down to Aelia Verrina, wife of Emperor Leo I. The chief of all the Aelii is of course Emperor Hadrian, whose biography is given under No. 64. Nothing more convincingly proves the enormous setback in civilization which the Orient has labored under since the days of the Roman Empire than Von Rohden's rehearsal of Hadrian's journeyings from Rome to Athens, from Athens by way of Ephesus, Lycia, and Cilicia to Antioch, thence to Palmyra, Damascus, Gaza, and back from Antioch by way of Jerusalem and Arabia to Egypt, up and down the Nile with the Empress, thence into Libya, where he hunts lions, back to Antioch, north again to Adrianople, Mœsia (now Bulgaria), and Dacia (now Rumania), through the Vale of Tempe to Dodona, swiftly again, at the news of the rebellion of Barcocheba, to Jerusalem, and home by sea to Rome—for such is the abundantly verified itinerary of one of his fifteen-thousand-mile journeys. In his ascents of Mts. Casius and Aetna, "to see the sunrise," in his artistic dilettanteism, and in his constant professions of unselfish devotion to the good of his people, the first *Reisekaiser* is indeed quite up to the last. Kaerst's account of Alexander the Great leaves something to be desired in the absence of any allusion to his physical appearance, or to his important relation to Greek art as a subject of portraiture; also in the manner in which the lasting effects of his conquests on the Indian frontier are ignored.

—Specialists cannot afford to ignore the data collected under *Aberglaube* by Dr. Ernst Riess, now a resident of Philadelphia, under *Achaia* by Brandis, who takes little note of the archæological evidence of the high civilization of the Achæans before the Dorian conquest, under *Aera* by Kubitschek, who gives a six-page synchronistic table of astronomical and Julian years compared with the Greek Olympiads and supplemented by the Byzantine indictions, and under *Arithmetica* by Hultsch. The latest and fullest information on Aphrodite has been collected by Gümpel, who favors a purely Hellenic origin of the cult and Kretschmer's etymology ἀφρ-ὀδίτη = foam-traveller, "an epithet deriving from Greek hymnology," rather than Preller's from a hypothetical Phœnician *aph'rudet* = the dove. The immense antiquity and the continuous use throughout Graeco-Italic antiquity of nude images *not* destitute of sexual significance, as the imagination of a Haw-

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thorne conceived the Venus of the Medici and her congeners to be, is clearly shown. In two long articles of the third semi-volume, on Apollo and Artemis, Wernicke takes the advanced ground of denying the primary connection of either deity with solar and lunar worship. His Apollo is an earth spirit, and his Artemis a sort of apsara, or dew fairy, out of which aspects the vegetal, pastoral, genital, tribal, purificatory, and other sides of the cult of both originally unconnected deities develop plausibly under his hands. The last semi-volume is especially rich in important subjects pertaining to the history of Greek literature, criticism, and science: Archilochus, Archimedes, Aristarchus, Aristophanes, Aristotle. In Crusius's article on Archilochus and in Kaibel's on Aristophanes, as in Kaerst's on Alexander, no allusion is made to the extant antique portraits, or to the silver cup lately exhumed near Pompeii on which the skeleton of the Parian poet, with the inscription ΑΡΧΙΛΟΧΟΣ, appears in company with those of the foremost other poets *du temps jadis*. The revised edition of Pauly, comprising 14,400 pages, will appear in twenty semi-volumes at the uniform price of 15 marks, and also in 150 numbers of 6 signatures at 2 marks each.

—The Journal of the Society of Arts (London: George Bell & Sons) of December 6 gives an account of a paper and discussion on a revival of the water-glass method of mural painting which has been used by Mrs. Lea Merritt in the decoration of the little church of St. Martin's, Wonersh. This method, which depends on the fixing of the colors by spraying with certain "soluble silicates and metallic oxides" (water-colors being used), was invented in Germany, and was in great favor at the time of the decoration of the Houses of Parliament. Maclise's enormous pictures of Waterloo and Trafalgar were painted in this manner, but he does not seem to have been much pleased with the process or its results, and we believe it has not been used since his time until now. Permanence and resistance to climate, even in exterior decoration, are the merits claimed for it. It seems characteristically English that the discussion should have brought out the expression of great hopes for the enlarged use of decorative painting in England based upon the revival of a process. Here, we should be likely to consider a process of little importance, and to think that a desire for painted decoration on the part of the public and an ability to design it on the part of the artists were the essentials. It may be doubted whether, in the epochs when art was really living, any one has cared much for permanence. The external walls of Venice were covered with frescoes by Titian and Giorgione as we cover ours with red paint and white "pointing"—because it suited the taste of the Venetians; and the work was as little expected to last for ever. The English sense of "commercial integrity," as Sizeranne calls it, places great stress upon permanence, and English painters make their work distressingly ugly with a glowing sense of virtue in the knowledge that it will always remain so. When we really want art we can have it even in so ephemeral a thing as the poster. Why should we not paint our walls in the same spirit, leaving our successors to treat theirs in their own way? The permanence of bad art and bad decoration is one of the melancholy things in this world, and for one lost masterpiece that we regret there are thousands of daubs that we cannot get rid of.

—An article in the *International Journal of Ethics* on "National Prejudices" is of a timely interest, which its author, an Englishman, could not have anticipated when he wrote it. Whatever the amount of slumbering dislike and misconception that may exist between European nations now, it is nothing like the brutal ignorance and the harsh hatred which the best of men felt only a few generations ago for people of a different race from themselves. The quotations which this writer gives are interesting landmarks, from which one can infer how much brotherly love between nations will surpass its present development fifty years from now. For instance, Coleridge writes that he had never met a German clergyman who was a Christian; the Russians he pronounced brutal; the Dutch, he said, were animals; and the Belgians, as impudent as they were iniquitous, consisted of four million restive asses. For the French he had this in reserve: "Frenchmen are like grains of gunpowder—each by itself smutty and contemptible, but mass them together and they are terrible indeed." Dr. Johnson said of the Americans in 1769: "Sir, they are a race of convicts, and ought to be thankful for anything we allow them short of hanging." Of the French he says: "What do you expect, dear sir, from fellows that eat frogs?" When asked whether, after all, God had not made Scotland, he replied: "Certainly he did, but he made it for Scotchmen; and we must remember that God made hell." When in particularly good humor, he was willing to love all mankind, *except an American*. Swift wrote: "The greatest Inventions were produced in times of Ignorance; as the use of the Compass, Gunpowder, and Printing; and by the dullest Nation, as the Germans." And the prototype for all this is the yet earlier proverbial saying, "Can any good thing come out of Nazareth?" A Franco-English alliance has been formed for the express purpose of removing the false views of the manners, customs, feelings, and history of each of those two nations which prevail in the other. Such an organization may easily become a powerful means for good.

—A bit of archæological news of some importance was announced on December 21 by M. Paul Delombre, in his report on the *crédits supplémentaires* asked for by the French Government. Among these is an item of 50,000 francs to pay for the exclusive privilege of making archæological diggings in Persia. M. Delombre gives the hitherto unpublished text of the agreement which has been made between the French Government and the Shah. The chief points in this agreement are these: On account of the scientific eminence of the French, and the friendly relations which for so long a time have happily existed between Iran and France, the Persian Government grants to the French the exclusive privilege of making diggings throughout the whole extent of the empire. All sacred places, like mosques and cemeteries, however, are to be exempt from disturbance; and the French excavating parties are held to respect the habits and customs of the country, and to do nothing to vex them. All expenses of whatsoever sort are to be at the charge of the Government of the Republic. If valuable objects in gold or silver are found, or if any jewels, these are to be the private property of the Persian Government; yet, in consideration of the cost and trouble of the diggings, one-half of such objects will be yielded to the French at a fair price; and, whenever the rest shall be sold, if ever, the French shall be given the first chance to purchase it. As to works of sculpture of all sorts, and inscriptions, they are to be divided evenly between the two Governments, but the French delegates are to have the right of making sketches or models of whatever may be found. Finally, "in recognition of the preference which the Persian Government accords to it, the Government of the Republic will make to his Majesty the Shah a present of 10,000 francs." It cannot be said that, as diggings go, the French have paid an undue price for their privilege. Everybody will wish them good luck in the exercise of it, and many discoveries in this relatively new and certainly most interesting and promising field.

SHERMAN'S RECOLLECTIONS.

John Sherman's Recollections of Forty Years in the House, Senate, and Cabinet. An Autobiography. Two volumes, illustrated. Chicago: The Werner Co. 1895.

MR. SHERMAN'S recollections derive interest from two sources—first, the importance of the events in which he has played a part; second, from their presenting a picture of the man himself. As a literary performance the book has no character whatever, but as the picture of a successful politician drawn by his own hand it is instructive. No doubt the success would have been more marked if the great ambition of Mr. Sherman's life, the Presidency, had been attained (we infer from these volumes that he has given it up); but, compared with that of most of his contemporaries, it has been very remarkable. In the world of politics success means remaining in office, and the question which has interested us in reading these volumes has been to make out the sort of character and mind required for the task during the past forty years. The answer is clearly that the first requisite has been a conviction that, no matter what one's party decides, the first duty of a statesman is to vote with it, and not set up his individual judgment against it; the second, that all differences of opinion, no matter whether they involve moral questions or not, can be compromised in some way; the third, that a public measure, no matter how good in itself, is worthless unless it satisfies the popular demand for the time being; the fourth, that when a statesman does not know in which of two opposite directions the popular current is moving, the thing for him to do is to "hedge"; the fifth, that speech is capable of many uses besides the bald and childish one of expressing one's thoughts. Mr. Sherman is a brilliant example of what would be called in France an "opportunist," and that he does not mind at least being criticised as such, seems a fair deduction from his quoting *in extenso* (pp. 810, 811) an article, by Don Piatt, in which he is complimented on a symmetry of intellect which "leaves nothing to regret except the thought that its perfection excludes the blemish of a soul." We shall not attempt to review Mr. Sherman's career in detail, but shall merely endeavor to show how his "recollections" of some of the leading events in it illustrate his character.

A marked feature of Mr. Sherman's personal recollections is their insipidity, and this is evidently due to his disinclination to recollect anything unpleasant or anything which might give offence. The stormy period of Grant's first term, for instance, ending in the revolt of 1872 and the nomination of Horace Greeley by the Democrats, is passed over almost in silence. We are told of the deposition of Mr. Sumner from the Foreign Relations Commit-

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tee; we are told that it was "a period of slander and scandal," and that in the course of it the author himself was falsely accused of having made money corruptly; also, that he went to California and saw the Yosemite and the big trees—but this is pretty much all. Of course, in the personal recollections of a financier, it is unfair to expect a full history of his times; and this may account for the fact that there seems to be no mention of the long controversy over the distribution of the *Alabama* claims money, as well as for the statement that the only reason for the defeat of Blaine's nomination in 1876 was "antagonisms" between him and Conkling (p. 550), and that in 1880 he was defeated because nine delegates from Ohio voted *for* him instead of for the author—this desertion preventing a subsequent unanimous transfer of the delegation from Sherman to Blaine (p. 773). The Belknap and Schenck affairs are not discussed, nor is the Crédit Mobilier scandal, which at the time convulsed the country.

Mr. Sherman's first political contest of importance was that for Speaker of the House in 1859-'60. His attitude in it was characteristic of the man. Helper's 'Impending Crisis' had appeared, and a pamphlet had been made from it by F. P. Blair. Mr. Sherman had been asked during the previous Congress by a friend of his, Mr. E. D. Morgan, to sign a recommendation for the circulation of such a pamphlet. Mr. Sherman warily replied that he "had not time to examine the book," but that "if there was nothing offensive in it" he (Mr. Morgan) might use his name. So far from there being nothing offensive in it to the Southern half of the country, from which the "incendiary" work emanated, the moment Mr. Sherman was put in nomination for Speaker, a Missourian introduced a resolution denouncing the book, and declaring that no member of the House who had recommended it was fit to be Speaker (p. 169). The candidate was at once able to say that he had never read the book, nor the compendium founded upon it; that he had authorized his name to be used only in case there was nothing "offensive" in the book; that if there was anything offensive in it, he repudiated it, and that his attitude on the slavery question was a matter of record. His manly, straightforward speech on the subject brought him within three votes of an election. Strange to say, there are people to this day ill-natured enough to think that Mr. Sherman avoided reading the 'Impending Crisis' in order to be prepared to stand by his signature or repudiate all knowledge of the book, as the cat might jump. But the air at the time was full of suspicion and distrust. Thaddeus Stevens, Mr. Sherman tells us, said he would never vote for any other candidate until the crack of doom, and afterwards explained his change of mind by saying that he thought he "heard it cracking."

One great advantage of Recollections is that the author can recollect things pretty much as he pleases, provided, at least, that he has Mr. Sherman's caution of statement. For instance, what he recollects about Johnson's impeachment is that the latter was simply guilty of a plain violation of a penal statute, and that no substantial constitutional question was involved (pp. 430, 431); consequently he "felt bound" to vote guilty, but "was entirely satisfied with the result of the vote, brought about by the action of several Republican Senators." At page 144 he gives what he calls the "whole case" as to the French Spoliation Claims, and declares their payment to be "the most striking evidence of the improvidence of Congress in dealing with antiquated claims against the Government." He mentions that they were "referred to the Court of Claims," but seems to have wholly forgotten that this court—the Government's own court—had the whole case before it, and solemnly decided that the Government ought to pay the claims, and that the money thus far paid has been paid under this decision.

Again, his account of the legal-tender acts is most peculiar. In a speech made in 1876 we find him laying down in the most positive terms, as a "universal law of political economy," that "whenever two metals or two moneys are in circulation, the least valuable will drive out the most valuable; the latter will be exported" (p. 541). But when Mr. Sherman explains his action with regard to the law by which Government notes were made legal-tender (pp. 255, 288), he forgets all about this "universal law," and lays down a quite different one—that the disappearance of coin is "the universal result of great wars long protracted," and that "gold and silver flee from a state of war"; that consequently what had to be done was to provide some currency in advance *to take its place when it should go*. Hence it was necessary to make the new currency a legal-tender *between individuals*. But Mr. Sherman is altogether too cautious to state such a non-sequitur baldly; the legal-tender act also provided that the bonds should be paid in gold, and that the customs revenue should, for this purpose, be collected in gold. This of course strengthened the public credit, and consequently the greenbacks; and Mr. Sherman is able to say, "The legal-tender act, *with its provision for coin receipts to pay interest on bonds*, whatever may be said to the contrary by theorists, was the only measure that could have enabled the Government to carry on successfully the vast operations of the war." This confuses a very simple question—Did the Government's declaration that the greenback should be a legal-tender for a dollar make it worth a cent more in the market than if it had been simply a promise to pay? On this point Mr. Sherman brings forward no proof. It is very significant that he makes no argument to show that the legal-tender quality of the *silver* dollar increases its value in any way.

It is the vice of a mind given to compromise that it generally ends in thinking that compromise is an end in itself; and men having this bent will generally plume themselves on advocating some evil at war with all their professions and calculated to produce the greatest public disasters, because, as they maintain, they have by this means averted some other evil, which they of course insist would have been far worse. They do not seem to perceive that, though they may acquiesce in and submit to such evils, they advocate them at the risk of their reputation not only for consistency but for sincerity. Mr. Sherman's attitude with regard to the "Sherman silver law" of 1890 is an illustration of this. Mr. Sherman is opposed to inflation, and yet reported this bill authorizing the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver every month; how does he reconcile his action with his professions? By showing that a large majority of the Senate favored free coinage, that it was feared that the House might yield and agree to it, that if a bill for free coinage should have passed both houses, Harrison might have signed it, and that free coinage was a worse evil than the silver-purchase scheme. Consequently, Mr. Sherman did what he could to pass the latter. The difficulty with this view is that instead of being a genuine compromise, the act was merely a sop to the free-silver men, and would no doubt have ultimately led to free coinage if the total collapse of the scheme to buoy up the price of silver by Government purchases had not brought the Government to the verge of bankruptcy. But, apart from this, how can a man with any real convictions on the subject advocate and father a bill which he holds to be radically vicious, because something worse is proposed by some one else? On this principle, the candid patriot may advocate anything he pleases, provided he announces that he is opposed to it. Suppose the majority of the House are in favor of an act for the immediate murder of all adult Chinamen or Indians, while the Senate is in favor of killing all the children as well. The first is obviously the lesser evil; but Mr. Sherman would hardly like to report it from a conference committee and favor its adoption. On these principles we might be called upon to listen to arguments in favor of an act legalizing burglary as a lesser evil than an act permitting murder, or of an act authorizing larceny as preferable on the whole to burglary. The matter is clear enough where acts universally recognized as wicked are concerned; but to an experienced financier (the whole book emphasizes this) inflation is only a disguised species of wickedness, designed to enable the debtor to cheat his creditor. And now mark the result. The "compromise," once made, immediately becomes a good and wise measure, and although now Mr. Sherman thinks that "the day it became a law" he was "ready to repeal it" (p. 1070), this is one of those points on which his recollection is at fault, for what he actually thought at the time, as appears by a prepared speech which he prints (p. 1112), was this:

> "*What we ought to do*, and what we now do under the silver law of the last Congress, *a conservative Republican measure*, is to buy the entire product of silver mined in the United States at its market value, and, upon the security of that silver deposited in the Treasury, issue Treasury notes to the full amount of the cost of the bullion" (p. 1116).

It must not be supposed that we have the slightest desire to belittle the reputation which Mr. Sherman gained by means of the operations that led to the resumption of specie payments. His career as Secretary of the Treasury is the brilliant page in his life. His country no doubt owes him a debt of gratitude on that score, while for cleverness, ingenuity, tact, and adroitness there is probably not his equal in Washington; but his passion for arrangement of difficulties by way of compromise has unfortunately ended in connecting his name with the measure just referred to, passed by inflationists, and which has ever since made the possibility of the honest payment of its debts by the Government an open question. His whole discussion of the currency question shows that he wishes to persuade us that it may be settled by means of a perfectly honest compromise between those who want to cheat the creditors of the Government and their own, and those who want Government and private debts honestly paid. He is consequently opposed to all contraction of the currency and retirement of the greenbacks, and even thinks that the volume of the currency may be increased as the volume of business increases (pp. 755–756). To the fact that a Government currency keeps alive a perpetual political agitation for dishonest inflation Mr. Sherman seems totally blind, though for thirty years, in one form or other, such an agitation has existed.

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One thing we miss sadly in these volumes, and that is some account of the actual means by which, through all the difficulties which have surrounded him, Mr. Sherman has managed to retain his foothold at Washington for forty years. In any country it would be an enormously long term of service—in America especially so—(he mentions with pride that his Senatorial career is the longest on record); and behind his action on the public stage which exhibits him rather as an adroit manipulator of legislation than anything else, there must have been forty years of management of the local politics of Ohio no less adroit, to prevent his younger and bolder rivals from ousting him. In this sort of manœuvring Mr. Sherman is no doubt a master, but of himself as a manager he does not give us a fair view, for he generally represents himself as avoiding as far as possible all dealings with the offices. An anecdote of the impression which his arts made upon Lincoln is curious. It seems that Mr. Sherman wished to dissuade Lincoln from making too many Whig appointments in Ohio, and requested an interview. He found the President in excellent humor, but when he began to complain about appointments, the expression of Lincoln's face "changed to one of extreme sadness." He did not say a word, but placed his feet on the table and began to look the "picture of despair." Mr. Sherman "took" at once. He began to reproach himself for bringing up so unimportant a subject as local offices when the country was in the throes of revolution, and finally he apologized for it, and declared that "he would not bother him again with them." Mr. Lincoln's face brightened, "his whole manner changed, until finally he almost embraced me" (p. 269). It appears that in 1888 Mr. Sherman lost the nomination for the Presidency through a "corrupt New York bargain," and he gives a picture of "bossism" in Hamilton County, Ohio, which shows that offices play the same part there that they do here in New York; but he declares that no Secretary of the Treasury was ever "so utterly indifferent to the distribution of patronage" (p. 769); and perhaps as an illustration of this he mentions that he "severed all connection between his duties in the Treasury" and the business of getting himself nominated for President, by setting up his Presidential "headquarters" in another building (p. 767).

Mr. Sherman is fond of a phrase with which one is more familiar in the mouths of domestic than of public servants. The highest commendation that he can accord any measure is that it "gives satisfaction." What he plumes himself upon in his political career is that he has himself given satisfaction. There is every proof that he has done so. He has seen and deeply pondered the terrible fate of those in public life who do not give satisfaction, and he has steered clear of the pitfalls which beset those who try to be independent of party, or to determine their action by considerations of public interest solely. Not that he avows anything of the kind; the whole book is written on the theory that all the legislation of the past generation is the result of the deliberations of true representatives of the people (excepting, of course, the Democrats in Congress, for when Mr. Sherman speaks of the People, what he has in mind is always his own party)—a most convenient theory, for it enables the author to overlook the fact that in all important crises public opinion has been in advance of legislative opinion, and that what most of the members of Congress and the Senate have been trying to do has been to keep their places or to get better ones. Mr. Sherman's notion of giving satisfaction, as already explained, is, roughly, in all cases of division of opinion within the party, to arrange some compromise on which the Democrats can be voted down; this, if it involves a sacrifice of conviction, makes it all the more creditable. The great advantage of this view of political duty is that under it the successful retention of place becomes proof of devotion to the good cause; it is only selfish or obstinate or dull people who think themselves called upon to set up their "conscience" against their party.

When Augustus was about to die, he asked those about him whether he had "played his part well"; and on their replying that he had, asked them to give him their applause. It is becoming the fashion for modern statesmen to anticipate a deathbed or posthumous verdict by the aid of a contemporary publisher. When the statesman feels that the fiat has gone forth; that the great Prize for which he has so long struggled is not to be his; that the time is rapidly drawing nigh when all place must be given up, he displays no emotion, but prepares himself calmly to meet the inevitable end. Wrapping his toga about him, with a firm voice and unruffled front he dictates his Recollections to his typewriter. The plan has much to recommend it, though from what we have said, it will be seen that we hardly think that in the long run the Recollections of Mr. Sherman will—if we may venture upon a financial metaphor—pass current at their face value. All the more reason, he would reply, that he should do what he could to keep them at par now by declaring that they are to be received and circulated by everybody with full faith and credit. This helps to float them, and though there is no Gresham's law under which they will drive more accurate and honest recollection out of the minds of the author's contemporaries or successors, he will probably always feel, as in the case of the legal-tenders, that there was really no other way to accomplish what he had in view, while the public at large will have the satisfaction of knowing that these last Sherman Notes will in the end be taken everywhere for exactly what they are worth.

THREE BOOKS ABOUT IRELAND.

Pagan Ireland. By W. G. Wood-Martin. Longmans. 1895.

A Letter by Capt. Cuellar of the Spanish Armada to Philip the Second. Translated by H. D. Sedgwick, Jr. G. H. Richmond & Co. 1895.

The Life of Patrick Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan. By John Todhunter. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams.

THE first of the above trio is by a well-known antiquarian and author of other similar works. It is an exhaustive account of the prehistoric antiquities of Ireland, copiously illustrated, and its compilation must have been the work of many years. There is no failing to which antiquarian observers are more liable than seeing too much; but the ordinary observer sees too little, and needs to have his attention drawn to mounds, heaps of stones, and rock-scribings, all of which have neither interest nor meaning for him unless they are interpreted by a skilled antiquarian. We can only conjecture what manner of men the dwellers in Irish caves, mounds, and "crannogs" were; they left no remains except bones of animals which served for food, rude crockery, primitive stone implements, and canoes, usually hollowed from a single tree. In the primitive stage of his existence man was scarcely distinguishable from the brute creation, and in Ireland very little advance was made until after the Christian era. Mr. Wood-Martin finds it impossible not to accuse the aboriginal inhabitants of habitual cannibalism, and thinks that a careful analysis of obscure customs still extant in Ireland throws some light on this subject. Regarding the fabled early civilization of the island he remarks:

"We possess many assertions as to the past glories of the land, but these assertions are not supported by material remains. It is clear that when the East was at the height of its civilization our ancestors were mere savages, and were but little better in later times, when Rome was at the zenith of her glory. . . . The description of the ancient glories of Erin, as given by enthusiastic historians, may be compared to the mirage of the desert, the mere reflection of distant scenes and the phantasmagoria of Roman and Eastern civilization, which the writers, imagining it ought to have existed, finally depicted as if actually existing."

Our author does not agree with the few antiquarians who hold that the Ogham inscriptions indicated "alphabetical knowledge." For this, as for other moot topics, one may consult the bibliography at the end of the volume. The number of authorities quoted and referred to in the text is enormous. Although Irish archæology has been at a standstill for years, there is a vast amount of material to be found in the journals of learned societies, pamphlets, and uncollected notes and letters, and this handbook, certainly one of the best in Irish antiquities, can hardly fail to give a fresh impetus to research.

The first of the Spanish Armada tracts contains a graphic account of Capt. Cuellar's misadventures after the dispersion of the Spanish fleet. Wrecked on the coast of Ireland, he spent seven months "in mountains and woods amongst savages, for in that part of Ireland where we were wrecked they are all such." He wrote to justify himself with the King, for he had been condemned to death when off Calais for some dereliction of duty. He hopes that his Majesty may occupy himself "a little by way of amusement after dinner by reading this letter." There was not much amusement for the Spaniards, for the greater number (about one thousand) who were wrecked with Cuellar were killed as they came ashore, or wherever they were found by the English troops and their adherents. The native Catholics plundered but sheltered them. At that time Ireland was but partly subdued; and, after many hairbreadth escapes, Cuellar reached some mountains "behind which lay a friendly country that belonged to a great lord who was a good friend to the King of Spain." On his way he was sheltered by a young man who "knew Latin," and with whom he conversed. Stripped of his clothes and wrapped in straw, he at last reached the house of the friendly lord, by name "de Ruerge," evidently "O'Rorke." "Although he is a savage," wrote Cuellar, "he is a very good Christian." Here he made himself acceptable to his hosts by telling their fortunes, becoming, he says, a "gipsy among the savages." Here is his account of the natives, who were always at war with the English:

"They live in huts made of straw. The men have big bodies, their features and limbs are well made, and they are as agile as deer. They eat but one meal a day, and their ordinary food is oaten bread and butter. They drink sour milk, as they have no other beverage, but no water, although it is the best in the world. They dress in tight breeches and goatskin jack-

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ets cut short but very big, and wear their hair down to their eyes."

Every Catholic appears to have been an enemy in the eyes of the English, and such civilization as the Catholic Church had introduced among the savages had been obliterated, for "almost all their churches, monasteries, and hermitages have been destroyed by the soldiers from the English garrisons." Cuellar escaped at last to Scotland and thence to Holland. This interesting and admirably printed little book is most creditable to both translator and publisher.

Mr. Todhunter's 'Life of Sarsfield' is a good addition to the New Irish Library. It is, however, rather an account of the Jacobite wars in Ireland than a biography of Sarsfield, for but little is known of the details of his life. He was a loyal, gallant soldier, and a devoted lover of his country. Born in Ireland and educated in France, he first saw war in the service of Louis XIV. Rumor says that he was one of the "Gentlemen of the Guard" of Charles II. The accession of James II. brought him into active service, and he took part in the battle of Sedgemoor in 1685. He remained faithful to James when all the leading English soldiers joined William of Orange, and landed at Kinsale in 1689 with James's Court. He sat in the "Patriot Parliament" as member for Dublin; and while William's forces occupied the northeast of Ireland, he preserved Connaught for the King. At the battles of the Boyne and Aughrim Sarsfield was present, but took no prominent part; his name is chiefly connected with the two sieges of Limerick, where, though not in command, he was the life and soul of the Irish party. At both the defence was heroic, and though the terms of capitulation were not observed by the English, it was due to the stubborn defence that they were secured. Sarsfield, created Earl of Lucan by James and a marshal of France by Louis, died at Landen fighting against William of Orange. Whether true or not, what are said to have been his last words as the blood flowed from a mortal wound, are characteristic of the man: "Would to God this were shed for Ireland."

The greater part of this book is occupied by a general account of the campaigns between James and William, and conveys a very clear conception of the various battles and sieges with the exception of that of Derry, which does not come into the plan of the work.

FOLK-LORE, TALES AND FABLES.

An Introduction to Folk Lore. By Marian Roalfe Cox. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribners. 1895. 8vo, pp. xv, 320.

Snow Bird and the Water Tiger, and other American Indian Tales. By Margaret Compton. With drawings by Walter Conant Greenough. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 201.

Natural History Lore and Legend. By F. Edward Hulme. London: B. Quaritch. 1895. 8vo, pp. 350.

Fables and Fabulists, Ancient and Modern. By Thomas Newbigging. Frederic A. Stokes Co. 8vo, pp. 152.

In spite of the large number of works in every department of folk-lore published within the last few years, no general treatise on the whole subject for the general reader has appeared until Miss Cox's book. As the author herself states, "This little book pretends without arrogance to answer a question not infrequently heard, namely: What is folk-lore?" The standpoint is exclusively the anthropological one elaborated by Tylor, Lang, Frazer, and Hartland, and the explanations of other schools are only glanced at. No fault can be found with this, for, whatever may be the shortcomings of the anthropological theory, it is the best working hypothesis yet advanced, and without it the great work in this department of research could hardly have been produced. It needed the human interest of anthropology to impart a fresh charm to the old myths, and to afford the connecting link between myth, ritual, and religion. Miss Cox begins, in an introductory chapter, with the primitive savagery of man, and gives instances of the survival of savage belief in habitual expressions and irrational practices of the civilized. The most important features of folk-lore are then grouped and discussed in six chapters, treating of the Separable Soul, Animal Ancestors, Animism—Ghosts and Gods, the Other-World, Magic and Myths, Folk-Tales, etc.

The author is herself a distinguished folk-lorist, having published through the English Folk-Lore Society an admirable monograph on the story of Cinderella, and is well equipped for her present work. She has not, however, wholly avoided a difficulty almost inseparable from the theory she advocates. One of the main arguments of the theory being universality of observance, a large number of illustrations gleaned from all parts of the world become necessary. These, however, are apt to obscure the point in question, and the repetition of the same details becomes tiresome. In works like those of Frazer and Hartland this is unavoidable; but in works intended for the general reader a judicious relegation of a certain number of examples to the footnotes would be wise. In spite of this, Miss Cox has made an eminently readable and valuable work. The selected list of books at the end is inadequate, and should be replaced in a subsequent edition by a classified list, which might profitably be made part of an appendix on methods of study in the field of folk-lore.

After the scientific collection of folk-tales comes their rewriting for the general public. In the original the characters are often unnamed and the incidents are narrated in the baldest form. It was a happy idea, therefore, for Miss Compton to present a certain number of American Indian tales for the amusement of the young, and she has executed her task so as to produce a pleasant and entertaining volume. Unfortunately she does not mention her sources otherwise than to state that "she has had access to Government reports of Indian life, upon which and the folk-lore contained in the standard works of Schoolcraft, Copway, and Catlin these stories are founded." This delightfully vague acknowledgment will arouse the ire of the conscientious reviewer, who feels that where materials are borrowed an exact statement at least of the whereabouts of the original matter should be made. The present reviewer has had time to look up but a few of the unnamed sources, and mentions them for the benefit of others who may like to know whether the book is trustworthy or not. The story of "The Bended Rocks," p. 57, is from 'Myths of the Iroquois,' by Erminnie A. Smith (Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of Ethnology, vol. ii., 1883, pp. 48–116), p. 54. "The Great Head," p. 115, is from the same collection, p. 59, as is (p. 100) "The Island of Skeletons," p. 143. "The Great Wizard," p. 169, is partly from the same collection, p. 69. A comparison of the above stories with the originals shows that Miss Compton has made skilful use of her materials, and has introduced no important or incongruous changes, but has preserved very successfully the spirit of the original, and produced a version much better suited to those whose interests are literary and not scientific.

It is difficult to explain the use of such a work as Mr. Hulme's, or to determine the class of readers for whom it is intended. It seems like the stray notes of a scientist who has amused his leisure hours in turning over the pages of old works on natural history, and is surprised that they contain anything approaching the truth. The author's object is stated in the following words: "We propose to consider at some little length the state of zoological knowledge in the Middle Ages," and the title page expressly says "examples—gathered in from divers authorities, ancient and mediæval." It is remarkable, then, to find that the first work cited was published in 1565, and that the majority of the books quoted are of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and even eighteenth centuries. There is very little that is mediæval in the volume beyond occasional references to the Beast books, and these are altogether inadequately treated. An orderly account of mediæval zoölogy would be valuable and interesting, and we believe does not exist in English, although the Germans have an excellent work of that nature by Carus. The book before us deals with animals real and mythical; and pygmies, mermaids, wehrwolves, lions, elephants, bears, the phœnix, roc, barnacle goose, basilisk, salamander, and leviathan crowd each other in these desultory pages. It would be wrong to give the impression that the book is entirely valueless or uninteresting. Many quaint conceits may be found scattered through it, and the reader will have another proof of the universality of Shakspere, whose references to the zoölogical beliefs of his day are cited on every page of the present work.

Mr. Newbigging has attempted to do for the fable what Archbishop Trench did for the proverb in his charming lectures on 'Proverbs, and their Lessons.' The result is a very readable little book, marred, unfortunately, by superficiality and inaccuracy. The first part, in which the author defines and characterizes the fable and discusses its moral and lessons, is the best. The historical résumé which follows is slight and inadequate. This is especially the case with the lists on pages 128–129. The mediæval French fabulist is usually known as Marie (and not Maria) de France, Fénelon is not generally termed the Abbé Fénelon. The ancient "fabulists," on p. 128, are all mediæval, and one, Poggio, is of the fifteenth century. There are many misprints in the list: Boursalt for Boursault, Guinguene for Guinguené, Armoult for Arnault. Le Grand, on the same page, is probably intended for the Legrand d'Aussy, editor of the French fabliaux, etc. The name of La Motte is omitted from the list of French fabulists, and there are other omissions. La Fontaine died April 13, 1695, and not March 15, as the author states in the text, or February 13, as in the note, on the authority of "Gerusez" (Gérusez.) There is also a brief account at the end of the volume of the modern illustrators of fables.

Antonio Allegri da Correggio; His Life, his Friends, and his Time. By Corrado Ricci. From the Italian by Florence Simmonds. London: Wm. Heinemann; New York: Scribners. 4to, pp. xxii, 408. 1895.

The form in which Dr. Ricci's 'Correggio' is presented makes its publisher's intention ob-

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vious. The elegance of the binding, the attractive pages, the pretty illustrations, were evidently designed for the public which, once a season, loves to buy a book wherewith to adorn the parlor table. To this public we cannot too highly recommend it. They will delight in the reproductions in green, blue, yellow, brown, pink, violet, and other colors, primary and derived, which have been employed with a justice most laudable, although, in truth, we are reminded of the proverb that Justice is blind. But the more esoteric art-lover will be disappointed with this publication when it falls into his hands. His eyes will be annoyed by the rainbow splendor of the illustrations, and his memory shocked by their faithlessness. We venture to say that, excepting the frontispiece, not one of the illustrations does the original even mediocre credit; while many are positively libellous, as, for instance, the reproduction of Lord Ashburnham's altar-piece, of the Uffizi pictures, the Hampton Court "Madonna," and the "Ecce Homo" of the National Gallery. Few of the reproductions in the text are clear enough to be of use to students, and the photogravures, when not already spoiled by being printed in color, are valueless from loss of modelling. For the student, we may here say parenthetically, two kinds of books, and two only, have a purpose: cheap books, with unpretentious illustrations intended as mere mnemonics; or works *de grand luxe*, with faultless reproductions. For him, the present 'Correggio' has scarcely any utility; it will not save him from buying the photographs; and for the price of the present volume he could buy most of the photographs themselves, so much better than any possible reproductions after them. We regret, in this connection, to have to rectify a slight misstatement. The publisher announces on the back of the title-page that the Hampton Court "Madonna" and Lord Ashburnham's altar-piece are here reproduced for the first time. They have already appeared in much better form in the 'Illustrated Catalogue of Works of the School of Ferrara-Bologna,' Burlington Fine Arts Club, 1894. And now, having expressed our disappointment with the publisher's part of the undertaking, let us turn to the somewhat pleasanter task of examining the author's share.

Dr. Ricci had before him a problem of exceeding simplicity. Correggio has not been a neglected artist, and few problems of a technical nature regarding his career have remained unsolved. To speak only of more important writers, Pungileoni, Meyer, and Morelli have done all the preliminary work. Morelli did even more: he made clear, to the satisfaction of all competent critics, from just what branch of the secular tree of Italian art Correggio had sprung, thus putting into the hands of the future writer the most essential of all data for the study of the artist's development. There was, in short, no lack of material, and no need for controversy, since, excepting the few writers who in every field of research are bound to lag behind, a happy concord reigned on the subject of Correggio. Dr. Ricci had therefore a splendid opportunity. Availing himself of all the material ready for use, he might have written a monograph on Correggio that would have reconstructed his artistic personality, and painted his imaginary portrait for the eternal delectation of those who love art and are led to its enjoyment by sympathetic interpretation and *le mot juste*. Perhaps Dr. Ricci felt himself unfit for this task—indeed, his chapter on "Correggio's Genius," although betraying that the writer was at times aware of Correggio's master quality, is prolix, meandering, and never penetratingly illuminating. At all events, Dr. Ricci has declined the undertaking.

He would have us believe that he, too, has new material to contribute to the subject, and to some slight degree this is the case. Dr. Ricci is among the first to draw attention to the fact that the town of Correggio, where Antonio Allegri was born and brought up, was by no means the least in the region of Emilia, but that, on the contrary, it was a seat of culture. Dr. Ricci had already said all that needed saying on this subject in a short essay in his charming volume 'Santi ed Artisti.' But, led astray by the superstition that a writer on art must needs add new facts, he makes much of this small contribution in the volume before us. Dr. Ricci revels in "environment" as if he had discovered it but yesterday. A chapter romantically entitled "The Two Princesses" is wholly devoted to a lyrical account of Veronica Gambara and Beatrice d'Este, two great ladies with whom Correggio was probably on terms of distant acquaintance. Our author still labors under the delusion that it is necessary to give florid descriptions—"moral, political, social, and religious"—of every spot for which Correggio painted a picture, and of every person who employed him. All this, however, is interesting, and even pertinent, compared with the refutation of foolish pedants long dead, and with the scores of pages devoted by the author to a chronicle of the romantic vicissitudes undergone by Correggio's still existing works, and to thrilling accounts of how the others miserably perished. To be brief, Dr. Ricci had the chance of giving us an imaginary portrait of Correggio such as the late Mr. Pater left of Plato. Fancy, however, instead of that volume of subtle, illuminating, and cultivating interpretation, a book most of which was filled up with accounts of the various manuscripts and how they came down to us, with rhapsodies on Athens, Megara, and Syracuse, on Dion and Diotima and Dionysus, and you will have a fair notion of what Dr. Ricci has achieved in his volume on Correggio.

Happily, for the comparatively few pages wherein he is writing of Correggio the artist, we have little but praise. His estimates are *rarely wrong; in controversy, almost without* exception on the right side. In spite of all our reservations, Dr. Ricci's 'Correggio' is the ablest monograph on any single painter that has yet been written by an Italian. And we could wish to end on this note, but unfortunately the translation does not permit it. A translator from Italian into English should bear in mind, as this translator has not done, that the sonorous and vowelled nature of the one language allows of phraseology which, translated literally into the other, sounds like so much balderdash. Once in a while, the sense even is not quite clear. "Other writers of artistic syntheses" is a queer phrase. Mantegna is almost invariably spoken of as "the great Vincenzan." We protest that if we must write Gibbonese, the word should at least be *Vicenzan*. The translator seems unacquainted with the simple English word "works," and insists on speaking, to our great discomfort, of "Correggio's *œuvres*." A fault of constant recurrence, to which we must draw particular attention, is the use of plurals like "Gonzaghi," "Malatesti," "Sforzi"—plurals which, of course, are not English, and certainly not Italian. When possible, proper names should be Englished: Gonzagas, Malatestas, Sforzas—why not?

Chronicles of Uganda. By the Rev. R. P. Ashe. With portrait and 26 illustrations. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 480, 8vo.

THE future historian of Uganda will not suffer from lack of original material for his account of the events immediately preceding the establishment of the British protectorate in that country. The official part is fully shown in the report of Sir Gerald Portal and the recently published work of Capt. Lugard. The French missionaries have given their version to the world through the Catholic Union of Great Britain. The native point of view is to be found in the 'Wars of the Ba-ganda,' a work written in the language of Uganda by the present Prime Minister, a prominent actor in the events which he describes. Of the accounts written from the standpoint of the English missionaries the 'Chronicles' of Mr. Ashe is the latest and most authoritative. A resident in the country for the greater part of the ten years preceding 1893, he has been a close observer of events and an eye-witness of many of the most important. But the main object of his book is apparently not so much to narrate the history of the religious wars as to criticise the accounts of other writers, and refute their statements when they seem to conflict with the truth. It should be said, however, that though he severely condemns much of the policy and action both of the English officers and of the French missionaries, no personal hostility towards them is to be detected. He takes frequent occasion to commend the energy and courage of Capt. Lugard and his associates, and bears pleasant testimony to the unbroken friendly intercourse between the representatives of the two great churches of Rome and England.

It is too soon to write a perfectly impartial and trustworthy history of the events of Mwanga's troubled reign, but one or two things are plain from Mr. Ashe's narrative. The most important is the utter impotency of a trading company to deal with the situation which existed in Uganda when the Imperial British East Africa Company appeared on the scene. Had Capt. Lugard possessed the ability of a Warren Hastings, he could not have succeeded in maintaining peace between the hostile factions into which the people were divided, considering the small force at his disposal, the anomalous position which he occupied, and the uncertainty which characterized the action of the British Government in regard to the evacuation or retention of Uganda. It is no less evident that the French priests, who came two years after the English missionaries, were in fact, though possibly unconsciously, political agents, who used every means in their power to bring the kingdom under the influence of France. This fact renders the much-lauded policy of neutrality towards the Catholic and Protestant natives assumed by the company's officers absurd and impossible to be maintained, since these gentlemen were in the country simply to confirm the supremacy of England. We cannot speak so confidently of the other actions of these officials condemned by Mr. Ashe, the bringing into Uganda the remnants of Emin Pasha's Sudanese garrisons, the war against King Unyoro, and other minor hostile expeditions in which the Maxim gun played a conspicuous and deadly part. They seem, however, to have been the unfortunate results of an unwillingness to profit by the knowledge and experience of the missionaries in dealing with the natives and a curious contempt for their judgment.

In the course of his interesting narrative

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Mr. Ashe gives many striking pictures of scenes and incidents which throw much light on the life and customs of the Ba-ganda. Among these is a short reference to Lubareism, the national religion of the country. This consists partly of hero-worship, and the mummies of two of their ancient heroes are still carefully preserved and guarded by virgin priestesses honored as their wives.

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In the opening and closing chapters the author describes his last journey to and from the coast. Among its noteworthy incidents was one which at that time was probably unique in the annals of African travel. Mr. Ashe was riding a bicycle on a native footpath far ahead of his porters when his

"attention was suddenly attracted by hearing some large animals galloping by my side. I was marking my path carefully at the time, but, on looking to my right hand, where the animals were, I discovered that the creatures which were accompanying me were three magnificent lions. Though I had heard the roar of lions close at hand in the darkness I had never before seen one face to face. My novel companions kept up with me, going parallel with me for about a hundred yards. They were distant some twenty or thirty yards. Presently they stood still, looked at me for a moment, and then slowly bounded off at a right angle, from time to time stopping and looking back, till they finally disappeared in the long grass, while I held on my way."

There are a number of illustrations, among the most interesting being views of the great church at Mengo, finished in 1892, whose thatched roof, forty feet high along the ridge pole, is supported by some three hundred tree-trunks.

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